

# The CLEANING HOUSE

March

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Vol. 28

No. 7

## GENERAL EDUCATION

Where It Stands Today

By CHARLES A. FORD

## QUESTIONS IN OUR MINDS ABOUT GUIDANCE

By ARNO PETERSON

Refer to

Why the Council Can't Run the School

By WILLIAM G. STERNER

Atomic Age—or Comic Age?

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Introducing Curriculum Development in Junior  
High Schools: The Council's First Step . . .  
Is It Day in Court? . . . Can One Month Turn a Living  
Topic . . . The National Plan for Guidance

High School Guidance



# The Clearing House

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## NOTICE TO WRITERS

We welcome contributions from our readers. In every issue we publish teachers' and administrators' articles reporting improvements, experiments, and successes as achieved in their schools. Many of our readers have accomplished things in classrooms and in school systems that should be known in thousands of other high schools.

Our preferred length for articles is 1,500 to

2,500 words. We also welcome items reporting good but minor ideas in 50 to 600 words. In addition to fact articles (which need not be dull or prosy) we invite articles of controversy, satire, etc., on secondary-education subjects. Typing should be double-spaced. Keep carbon copy and send us the original.

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## THE CLEARING HOUSE

*A faculty journal for junior and senior high schools*

VOL. 28

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# GENERAL EDUCATION:

## *Where it stands today*

By CARLOS DE ZAFRA, JR.

BECAUSE "general education" is one of the major post-World War II developments in this country's secondary schools (various forms of the movement are also known by such terms as "common learnings," "unified studies," "life adjustments," and "core"), it is the purpose of this article to sketch briefly: (a) the history of the movement, (b) six of its advantages, and (c) a half-dozen of the most commonly voiced criticisms of it.

### *Its History*

A basic problem to which general education directs itself is the fact that approximately 50 per cent of all pupils who enter high school fail to be graduated. Yet public schools are dedicated to the proposition that 12 years of education are essential for all citizens. Wise educators have long been disturbed by drop-outs, a primary cause of which is stated clearly in a recent yearbook of the National Association of Secondary School Principals:

It never *has* been the nature of the schools to keep pace with social change. . . . In an era of momentous change, the problem becomes *acute*. . . . A major problem confronting educators in secondary schools today is that of *reworking* the programs of these institutions so as to make them truly functional in the lives of the student population.<sup>1</sup> (Italics are mine.)

<sup>1</sup> 36th Yearbook of the National Association of Secondary School Principals, April 1952, p. 249.

This same yearbook contains an authoritative survey of the ten most "significant trends in the content and organization of the junior-high curriculum." The survey gives first billing to the *correlation*, the *fusion* of compatible subjects into a more meaningful educational experience for the pupils than has been the case heretofore. Some idea of the nature of this "reworking" of the secondary-school's traditional program is indicated by this statement:

In this (new) curriculum, the traditional subject fields are not discarded, but serve as a valuable adjunct in enabling the student to satisfy his own personal needs and interests. The effort of the school is directed toward vitalizing these subject areas. . . .<sup>2</sup>

This promising idea of correlating and fusing traditionally separate subject disciplines into a "general education" for the enrichment of the pupil's educational experience actually had its origins several decades ago, when high-school "history" became the "social studies" with the apt integration of compatible items of sociology, economics, geography, political science, and current events.<sup>3</sup> Simultaneously there was a wise lessening of emphasis upon such conventional things as the memorization of a

<sup>2</sup> *Ibid.*

<sup>3</sup> This thesis is presented more fully in the early chapters of Faunce and Bossing, *Developing the Core Curriculum*, Prentice Hall, 1952.



plethora of dates and the moribund analysis of military battles. This healthy development of "history" into the "social studies" was a significant break with the traditional collegiate compartmentalization of subject matter and the petrification of academic courses of study.

About 1935 a more advanced form of this weakening of strict departmentalization began to make its appearance in the United States at the secondary level in several separated locations. A few experimenting educators hit upon similar reworkings of the secondary-school's program at nearly the same moment. The barriers between such compatible subjects as English and the social studies, for example, were pierced and even removed by their emphasis on correlating and integrating previously separated content.

Although preoccupation with World War II may well have held back the spread of this movement, a survey made by the United States Office of Education in 1949 revealed the following aspects of its growth up to that time:<sup>4</sup>

1. Eleven per cent of the junior-senior high schools having 500 or more pupils reported having a core curriculum.

2. Twenty per cent of the junior high schools in the country with a registration of 500 or more pupils had a core curriculum.

3. Thirty-six per cent of all the core programs reported were in the 7th grade; 30 per cent in the 8th grade; 20 per cent in the 9th grade; and only 14 per cent in the 10th, 11th, 12th, and ungraded classes. (These figures strongly suggest that the core program has especial application to the widely "neglected area" of junior-high-school-age pupils.)

4. Seventy-three per cent of the core courses which were reported combined English with the social studies.

In November of 1952, an annotated bibliography, "The Core in Secondary Schools," was issued by the United States Office of Education. It contained the titles

<sup>4</sup> Grace S. Wright, *Core Curriculum in Public Highschools*, U. S. Office of Education, 1950, as quoted by Ralph W. Tyler in the *NEA Journal*, Dec. 1953, p. 563.

of over 100 published items concerned with the general-education movement. Also in 1952 it was reported as the result of several studies that high-school administrators were indicating a "lively interest in core programs and plans for their continued development."<sup>5</sup> For several years now the Cooperative Study of Secondary-School Standards has included a section on "The Core Program" in the evaluative criteria against which its member secondary schools are judged.

Still further evidence that this general-education method of "reworking the programs" of our secondary schools is an accelerating movement is found in the October 1953 issue (p. 7) of *School Life*, in which an analysis of the core-program offerings at 85 teacher-training universities and colleges (selected at random) in their summer sessions of 1953 reveals these three significant facts:

1. Thirty of these 85 institutions (over one-third) offered a total of 46 courses in core or emphasized the core program in their catalogue announcements.

2. These 30 institutions were located in 21 states and the District of Columbia.

3. Half of the 30 institutions which stressed the core program for teachers' summer study were in states which in 1949 had reported 10 or fewer high schools with a core program.

It would appear from the preceding evidence that the general-education movement at the secondary level has outgrown its infancy and is at least and at last beginning to come of age.

#### Six Advantages

A major characteristic of the general-education program is the fact that one teacher has the same group of pupils for at least two consecutive class periods. Thus, whether or not the general-education teacher is also the homeroom teacher, general education readily provides a sort of

<sup>5</sup> Grace S. Wright, *Core Curriculum Development, Problems and Practices*, U. S. Office of Education, 1952, pp. 9-15, as quoted by Ralph W. Tyler in the *NEA Journal*, Dec. 1953 p. 564.



transitional "home port" for the new entrant during the first years of his secondary education. No longer is he immediately jumped from the grammar-school system, in which he has one teacher all day who teaches practically every subject, to the high-school organization, which gives him a different teacher for every fifty-minute period and as many as 10 different teachers a week.

This double period leads very naturally to a second and concomitant advantage, namely, that having fewer pupils per day allows the teacher to know each youngster more thoroughly and intimately than has previously been possible. Guidance of the individual pupil may now enter the classroom to a greater extent than before. The understanding teacher can promote new heights of pupil-teacher rapport.

*It all adds up to a new emphasis on the adjustment of the individual pupil to his several communities of school, family, local area, state, nation, and world.* General education has a keen eye toward selecting those items of skill, attitude, and understanding that will best meet the needs of the young person.

The situation encourages a greater degree of pupil-teacher planning<sup>\*</sup>—an apprenticeship in creative, democratic procedures—than has been customary in the traditional subject-specialist classes, where there is a completely mandated course of study to be covered in too little time. General education's resource units are thought of not so much as being prescriptive, but rather as being helpful and suggestive to the teacher for his work with his class.

A fourth advantage of general education is perhaps the most obvious of all. Even the most traditional of teachers concede the desirability of coordinating history, for example, with literature for the mutual enrichment of both. Correlation of *The*

### EDITOR'S NOTE

*General education under its various special names in secondary schools is considered by some educators to be a means of salvation for the public-school program, and by others to be an unspeakable degradation of academic standards. Mr. de Zafra, who is coordinator of general education in Charlotte High School, Rochester, N. Y., and a CLEARING HOUSE associate editor, tells how the program has grown, and analyzes six of its chief advantages and six criticisms leveled against it.*

*Tale of Two Cities* with the study of the French Revolution is often cited as a case in point. Integration of Random House's relatively new but well-known "Landmark Series" of books with American history at the 8th-grade level is another case in point. How much more efficient and effective does correlation become when a single teacher is allowed to integrate the contents of both the English and the social-studies classes!

A fifth advantage of general education is the fact that, according to the best thinking of those in the field, units of classroom work are stated in terms of problems to be solved. These problems, when not actually formulated by the pupils themselves, are at least stated from the pupils' point of view, not the college professor's. Since an appalling percentage of the conventional facts of separate subjects are forgotten within a discouragingly short time, the ideal curriculum would seem to be a series of sequential problems focused upon the development of the pupil's skills, attitude, and understanding from the point at which we find him, and not primarily upon the complete mastery of an abstract subject *per se*.

The theory is this: When you and I have a problem to solve in our own lives, we bring to bear upon the solution of that problem all knowledge and understanding that seem helpful and pertinent, regardless of the subject-discipline category from

<sup>\*</sup>See Carlos de Zafra, Jr., "Three Steps to Pupil-Teacher Planning," *The Clearing House*, April 1951, pp. 451-54.



which we take them. Since we use skills, attitudes, and understanding this way, why not *learn* them in a similar manner—which means cutting across the artificial, college-derived partitions between compatible subjects? Dewey's theory that pupils learn by doing, that they learn best by solving problems that are meaningful to them, stands straight and clear, and is as applicable to academic subjects as it is to the vocational and manipulative areas of the curriculum.

This fifth argument in favor of general education has even worked its telling way into the humor columns, first of the *NEA Journal* and then, by reprint, of *Coronet*:

After writing a story in connection with social science, my pupils objected: "We haven't had an English lesson today." After I pointed out that in writing the story, they had had English, social studies, and spelling, one boy muttered, "That's the way they fool you. They teach you and you don't know it!"

A sixth advantage of general education is that it provides a partial answer to the complaint by parents and thoughtful school people that the individual pupil's welfare has too often been lost sight of in the strictly departmentalized organization of secondary schools.

One manifestation of this miscarriage of educational machinery has been the matter of homework assignments, with the teacher of one subject having no knowledge of the quantity of assignments being given by the teachers of other subjects. The result is that for days at a time a pupil may have relatively light assignments, and then all at once each teacher begins to "lay it on," feeling perfectly justified in doing so.

These erratic and inconsiderate demands upon a pupil who, after all, has an important life outside the school, are not conducive either to the pupil's best development as a person or to his performance as a student. By combining at least two of our traditional subjects, general education is a

step toward achieving for the pupil a more equitable and sensible assignment load.

### Six Criticisms

In the interest of clarification, I should like to divide these six most-often-heard criticisms into two groups: A—those which are directed against certain aspects associated with general education but which, upon analysis, are not primarily against general education itself, and B—those which are directed squarely against general education and which deserve direct answers, if there be any.

#### (GROUP A)

Some high-school teachers object to teaching general-education classes because the pupils are usually of junior-high-school age. In some cases, this attitude represents a genuine dislike of boys and girls in the early adolescent years; in others it represents the financial premium placed by some school systems on teaching the upper grades; and in still others it is simply a matter of the supposed prestige that comes from teaching older pupils. Whatever the exact motive, the objection is primarily against the age and nature of the pupils, and not against the program itself.

A second criticism on the part of many teachers is against the extreme "core" programs as supposedly practiced in some schools. To outsiders, pupils of these schools appear to be allowed to pursue any ephemeral concern of the moment, with the programs so extremely "pupil centered" that solid accomplishment would seem to be a standard of the past.

While this criticism of some extreme programs may, in fact, be justified, it certainly does not apply to the great majority of "fusion" programs that we have in mind throughout this article. This criticism is too often directed against some hypothetical bogey man into which it is feared any deviation from the traditional *might* develop, and not against any specific program. This

\* Anecdote by Margaret Shutt.



particular criticism would seem to be about as valid as is the refusal to learn how to drive an automobile because some people get killed in them.

A third criticism, sometimes expressed as "I just don't like general education," becomes, upon analysis, simply an expression of the insecurity which any teacher naturally feels when teaching something new. Since a double period is involved, that feeling of insecurity is probably twice as great as it would be for any single-period class. Undoubtedly, the first year of teaching general education is confusing for the teacher, especially if there has been no adequate preparation for the new assignment.

A huge change is involved for the typical high-school teacher. He must become familiar with the content of another subject area and develop points of integration between the two fields. He must also cultivate an approach to teaching which stresses pupil development and the cultivation of usable skills rather than mastery of each little detail of factual information, whether it is meaningful to the pupil or not.

This initial and natural feeling of insecurity tends to disappear, of course, as one becomes more accustomed to general education during the second and third years of teaching it.

Now for the fourth criticism, which is all too prevalent and is often justified, namely, that there is a lack of proper orientation and preparation for the teacher charged with the responsibility of handling a general-education class. For those general-education classes which are a combination of English and social studies, the ideal teacher would seem to need these requirements: (1) He has predilections *for* and not *against* younger adolescents and the general-education program; (2) he has specialized in both English and the social studies; and (3) he is thoroughly acquainted with at least the fundamentals of the modern guidance program.

Just as there is a priority today on re-

cruiting likely candidates for school teaching in general, so there needs to be a planned campaign for recruiting likely junior-high-school general-education teachers in particular. Many a fine subject-specialist teacher makes a poor, or at least dissatisfied, general-education teacher through no fault of his own. In my judgment he should not, either for his own good, the good of the general-education movement, or for the good of instruction in the upper grades, be *made* to teach general-education classes against his protests. If the general-education movement should fail, the fault, I believe, will lie not so much in the general-education program itself as in the difficulty of finding capable teachers compatible with it.

Only teachers who *understand* and who *believe* in the underlying philosophy of general education should be asked to teach such courses. Of 29 teachers who had expressed at least a willingness to take such classes in the Rochester, N. Y., schools in September of 1950, only 3 indicated a preference on an unsigned questionnaire at the end of the year to be excused from their general-education responsibilities.

For those school systems which would like to introduce general education in a few classes with present teachers on an experimental basis, I strongly advocate that social-studies teachers, for example, be given a straight English class and that English teachers be given a straight social-studies class at the same grade level as the proposed general-education class for one or two years *before* they receive general-education assignments. Thus, integration of the usable items in each subject's content will more readily take place within the teacher's mind before he is asked to have it take place within his classroom and in the educational experience of his pupils.

#### (GROUP B)

There remain two criticisms which must be met head on.



The first lies in the fact that however adequately and carefully general-education teachers are prepared and/or selected, general-education classes are themselves unusually demanding.

The best answer to this criticism would seem to be the granting of an extra free period during at least the first year of core teaching to help the beginner organize and integrate his many scattered materials and plan his more far-flung class procedures. It is reassuring to know that after the first or second year, when they have become familiar with core procedures and materials, some teachers report that it is actually less tiring to have the same group of pupils for a double period than it is to go through the overhead of keeping two separate classes organized and operating. Furthermore, once they accept the more human approach of trying to promote the pupil's personal development and competence rather than merely his knowledge, some teachers find a greater satisfaction in this type of teaching than they knew in their more traditional classes.

A second major criticism of general education is that it calls for a lowering of the standards of good scholarship.

General education *does* say that "scholarship for the sake of scholarship" is unrealistic and drives young people away from school, but it also places a great premium both on relating the findings of scholarship to the daily lives of each pupil and on developing the pupil's skill to ferret out pertinent facts for himself. General education believes that instead of pupils being conscripted to serve scholarship, scholarship should be pressed into serving the best development and adjustment of the pupils.

For example, even the most traditional teacher of a year's course in the history of the world must admit that the facts studied are necessarily *selected* facts. General education merely insists that the facts selected be the ones most pertinent to the pupil.

To be specific. In a study of the Spanish colonies in America, general education puts less emphasis on the academic story *per se* than does a straight social-studies class, but it puts a greater emphasis upon the influences that these Spanish colonists have had on our lives today—*i.e.*, the introduction to North America of such things as citrus fruits, olive orchards, horses, carnations, vineyards, the Catholic religion, some of our geographical place names, a particular style of architecture, and words such as "cafeteria."

By reading at the same time appropriate historical fiction with a colonial-Spanish background, the modern pupil not only identifies himself with a large historical movement, but he also comes to appreciate vividly and personally the cumulative contributions of the past to his everyday American present.

When critics such as Dr. Arthur E. Bestor of the University of Illinois decry the weakening of "all scholarly disciplines" in our secondary schools, they simply betray a patent unfamiliarity with the nature of the pupils in everyday classrooms. These critics cannot make scholars in the classical tradition out of today's pupils simply by fiat. One of the main troubles with our high schools is that too many of them still dole out pretty much the same bill of fare they did 75 years ago—one with emphasis on preparation for college for pupils who are not going to college. Such critics would, in my judgment, merely compound our problems by returning to the very things that *haven't* worked.

These critics would seem to be on solid ground only if they mean that more of our secondary schools should organize their students into homogeneous classroom groups so that each pupil, especially the potential leaders of society and those who *are* college-bound, is required more fully to live up to the limits of his capacity. Even so, I would refer such critics to a recent survey of several significant studies which



compare the educational progress of students in core programs with matched students in traditional subject courses both "in the schools and also . . . in college." The conclusion of this survey states, "These evaluation studies indicate that pupils in the core are making somewhat *more* educational progress than those in conventional courses. . . ." (Italics are mine.)

\* Ralph W. Tyler, "The Core Curriculum. *NEA Journal*, Dec. 1953, p. 564.

### Conclusion

There are far too many people working hard to improve general education for anyone to claim that it is yet a panacea for the curricular problems which currently beset us. However, it does seem to have sufficient merit, both present and potential, to deserve our sympathetic and creative efforts. General education is unquestionably one of the most promising developments in the secondary schools today.

## \* \* Tricks of the Trade \* \*

By TED GORDON

**MATH SHORT CUT**—When adding unlike fractions in which both numerators have the figure "1" as in  $\frac{1}{2} \times \frac{1}{3}$  or  $\frac{1}{3} \times \frac{1}{4}$  you may get your answer quickly by (1) adding both denominators for the new numerator; and (2) multiplying both denominators for the new denominator. Try it!

**CONTROVERSIAL ISSUES**—In discussing controversial subjects, I write a statement on the board such as: "At present it's impossible for Negroes or persons of Oriental extraction to buy houses in the residential section of this city. Are such restrictions based on race prejudice? Or are they just 'good sense'?" I then divide the class into small groups (buzz sessions) and give half of them the task of thinking of reasons

indicating prejudice and half the task of thinking of reasons indicating "good sense."

After ten minutes the class is convened and each group reports; statements are written on the board. Then the meeting is thrown open for general discussion. I seldom find it necessary to comment on the discussion since students are able to isolate and evaluate the arguments commonly put forth by the opposing camps. At the end of the period I summarize the discussion and state what I think the sense of the meeting has been.—*Henry Clay Lindgren*, San Francisco State College.

**LAUGH BOOKS**—All my biology classes make "laugh books" consisting of 300-500 pictures, cutouts, and paintings. The books are sent each holiday to the Veterans Hospital in Lyons, N.J.—*H. Theodore Stubbs*, Weehawken High School, Weehawken, N.J.

—\*—

**EDITOR'S NOTE:** Readers are invited to submit aids and devices which may be of help to others. Please try to limit contributions to 50 words or fewer—the briefer the better. Original ideas are preferred; if an item is not original, be sure to give your source. This publication reserves all rights to material submitted, and no items will be returned. Address contributions to THE CLEARING HOUSE. Dr. Gordon teaches in East Los Angeles Junior College, Los Angeles, Cal.

**PERMANENT BULLETIN BOARD**—Another teacher gave me the idea of using enamel on the slate blackboard to outline a permanent bulletin board. Mine is done in bright colors with characters from the funny sheets. This prevents notices from sprawling all over the board.—*Charles Swick*, Saratoga High School, Saratoga Springs, N.Y.



# Questions in Our Minds ABOUT GUIDANCE

By REED FULTON

WE READ ABOUT or experiment with practical guidance and questions come to our minds. In these questions are our doubts, our hesitations, our misunderstandings. In the answers to such questions lie motivation, practical inspiration, the ways and means of taking the guidance concept and causing it actually to function in our specific school.

Let's jump at once to these questions and consider at least one answer for each. These answers are not presented as final or exclusive. They are, however, practical in that they have all worked well under rather typical conditions.

*Is guidance more needed today than yesterday?*

The keynote of today is *change*, the symbol is *uncertainty*. The child's needs have become manifold. He must learn to face a thousand situations with greater versatility than has ever before been demanded of human beings. Youth would need to live many, many lives if wisdom could be gained only by direct experience. Vicarious experience comes to his rescue in preparing the background necessary for the complicated living of today. From one angle guidance is vicarious experience.

Within each child there lie certain potentialities. Neither guidance nor education can add to the God-given potentialities, but these two agents can help the child in his journey towards his maximum. Guidance seeks to reveal and release the native powers of the individual; education trains and adjusts those same powers.

Practical guidance steps into a school and says: "Friends, we've become so busy distributing facts and skills, we've allowed our minds to wander from our real obligation. We need to refocus our powers on human engineering, and the guidance viewpoint can help us do so."

There can be no fixity to guidance. It must be fluid to meet the demands of life. Its purpose must grow out of contemporary civilization. Its methods must be constructively practical. Its result must be measured in terms of individual as well as of social ideals.

*What is the goal of guidance?*

Through practical guidance there is developed and released within the child the power to see clearly, to think creatively, and to act courageously. Do you need any broader objective than that? Well, to be quite truthful, definitions aren't extremely helpful. . . . Forget the word *guidance*. Wipe it from all educational memory, and still the thoughtful teacher or the creative administrator will do all the wise things which *guidance* does suggest.

*What part does the principal play?*

Practical guidance in most schools will focus in the mind of the principal irrespective of the procedure. In that same mind will move all other matters which affect the school. And this is well, for guidance needs perspective. Some one person must center that perspective no matter how many persons may contribute to close-up views of divisions of the field. But don't get the



idea that guidance rests with the principal. Guidance can't rest with the principal any more than can the process of instruction rest with him. Yet for successful progress there must be someone who acknowledges the initial and final responsibility.

*Is there no ready-made guidance plan?*

We would not be typical Americans if we failed to ask for a plan all in readiness. Americans have been trained to expect the ready-made article, complete with simple instructions for installation. We are doomed to disappointment this time, for practical guidance is custom built. The models may be along the same general line, but each carries the mark of the individual school and the individual craftsman.

The questions which follow are actual ones, voiced by students of guidance. The answers, like all answers in this field, are not intended as final, for vital factors of environment and personality must determine the application of any idea.

*How is guidance best administered in a high school of two hundred or fewer?*

In any school, guidance should come as a viewpoint influencing all school experience. This means that every teacher is a contributor to the guidance service of the school. Not all will make equal contribution, but that is likewise true in the instructional process. The specialized services of the guidance program should not be allowed to overshadow this all-inclusive viewpoint.

*How much special training is necessary for the supervision of a guidance program?*

No special training is needed to start such a program. Viewpoint and initiative are needed. The program itself becomes a laboratory. However, a background of practical psychology, testing, and experience with youth is highly desirable.

*Should the pupil be aware that he is being offered guidance?*

Is there advantage in not having the pupil aware that he is in a physics class? Yet commonsense tells us that factors may make the casual approach to specific guidance the wise one.

*By what rapid method can I come to understand vocational guidance?*

A thorough knowledge and understanding of vocational guidance will come only through years of study. Such study will include an understanding of youth, of occupational possibilities, and of the techniques for stimulating youth to wise action.

*How may labor union obstacles in connection with vocational courses be overcome?*

Understand thoroughly what you wish to accomplish and why these objectives are, in the long run, beneficial to all concerned. Draw key men of your community one by one into your planning by presenting the fundamental problem and asking for their aid in solving it. By all means include labor leaders. Lay careful groundwork with individuals before you have a group conference for decisions.

*Does our part in guidance cease when the child leaves school?*

Our responsibility is to society. As the

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#### EDITOR'S NOTE

Mr. Fulton undertakes to clear the atmosphere of some of our "doubts, hesitations, and misunderstandings" concerning guidance. In fact, he takes twenty-six questions that are most likely to rise in the minds of school people at one time or another, and offers terse answers to them all. These answers are practical in the sense that they have "all worked well in rather typical conditions" in Mr. Fulton's school and others. He is principal of Roosevelt High School, Seattle, Wash.

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most highly organized instrument of society, the schools must modify or extend their practices in the light of the life needs of the individual. A community can also awaken to its obligation to carry on guidance.

*What are my obligations toward guidance as a classroom teacher?*

The classroom teacher has a three-fold responsibility from the viewpoint of practical guidance: to repoint the curriculum, to focus all classroom activities toward purposefulness and self-control, to signal to specialists when need arises.

*Should vocational guidance be given on the ninth-grade level or later?*

Attitudes and habits of success should be a part of all school experience. A cultural understanding of many occupational fields should come before the senior year. More practical phases of job getting and holding are appreciated by the students in the senior year.

*How can the vocational counselor keep up to date?*

Counselors need far more realistic contact with the world than ordinarily develops. Systematic industrial trips, experience in placement work, and regular follow-up of graduates are methods of counselor education that are pursued in some school systems.

*Is the following experiment a good approach to vocational guidance?* Seniors are required to work downtown for two hours each day in some business house or shop in which they are interested. They receive one credit rather than pay. The town is relatively small and the personal gain of the pupils seems to vary greatly.

With all factors ideally controlled, such experience would be invaluable. If each pupil has a purposeful and self-governing attitude, if each business man knows what

to expect and what not to expect, if the school has the time and the wisdom to integrate this experience with the other phases of the school work, reasonable success will follow. Without much preparation with pupils and business men, this plan will wear itself out rapidly, even though welcomed with enthusiasm. In a community where there is unemployment, the plan is questionable. A plan for post-graduate vocational experience might be developed through cooperation with the various local unions.

*Should guidance be given as part of the subject matter of various courses?*

To begin with it is recommended that most group guidance be offered as a closely integrated part of various courses. It seems wise to turn the efforts of the instructional process towards the objectives designated by good guidance. The curriculum needs the leavening influence of practical guidance.

*Do average pupils need guidance?*

Every child needs the personal stimulation provoked by wisely administered guidance.

*As principal, how can I best handle teachers who have had more experience than I but who have missed the viewpoint of guidance?*

An adequate answer to this question involves the entire scope of human relationships. When you have learned how to stimulate the individual to wise introspection and to subsequent self-guidance, you will be on the way. Remember that your own concept may not be entirely correct. Move slowly.

*At what age level is guidance most needed?*

Ideally, guidance so integrates with the development of the child that need does not bulge forth at any special age. Realistically,



however, the adolescent calls for pronounced attention. Unless unusual balance has been achieved by the individual, the most trying time is in the sixteenth or seventeenth year. Having completed the period of rapid growth, the youth is prompted by nature to separate from parental influence. The prolongation of dependency prevents certain natural, though dire, compulsions which should become operative at this age. The resulting confusion increases our students' need for guidance.

*Can one give reliable information to several hundred students even if he gives full time to guidance work?*

The reliable information needed as a background for self-guidance should be organized and administered as an integral part of existing courses. The counselor's first move should be toward harnessing the forces already in the school. When this process is moving forward under its own momentum, the counselor may begin systematic conferences with various individuals.

*Is not the greatest problem that of teacher guidance?*

At least two fears keep some teachers out of line: the fear of additional work, and the fear of something new. When these teachers see that their normal efforts will become more fruitful because the *will to learn* will be increased, and when they realize that guidance is new in name only, their fears will diminish.

*What is a good program for procedure in a high school?*

Recommended steps:

1. Spend a year developing skill in educational guidance on the part of the faculty. Develop material for an educational guidance manual as a classroom project. This year's work should show results in the area where the public normally expects the

school to function. There will be no complaint about a new fad.

2. Experiment slowly with the development of group lessons on attitudes. Have these lessons created in existing classes and administered with student leadership on a cooperative basis. Try the student forum idea, the traveling panels, the presidents' forum. Emphasize the idea that teachers and pupils work together to make a good school better. Remember that teachers must not abdicate in any degree.

3. In the second year begin the development of a manual for vocational guidance, dealing principally with unskilled occupations. Your group guidance will have touched upon social-civic guidance and leisure-time guidance. Try working out a program for social guidance.

*How can we utilize better the guidance data we have in our files?*

The use of data depends upon placing it in the hands of teachers concerned and in training the teachers to use it wisely and thoroughly.

*Should a specialist handle guidance in the school?*

The specialist is invaluable as a director or organizer and for unusual cases, but should never be looked upon as "the guidance program."

*How can guidance be applied in a rural district?*

Practical guidance places its chief hope in a viewpoint to be held by each teacher. Consequently it is as adaptable to the rural as to the urban school.

*What does guidance do with discipline problems?*

Practical guidance relies upon the development of a purposeful attitude and of self-control; it centers attention upon individual activity (behavior). Consequently discipline problems tend to reduce rapidly.



# INTRODUCING *Denver sells new program to teachers*

## Curriculum Improvement

By  
JERRY E. REED

AFTER LOOKING over a copy of Denver's new *Program in English; A Guide for Teaching the Language Arts, Kindergarten Through Grade Twelve*,<sup>1</sup> one educator said, "This is a good start; now the real job begins!"

By this statement he emphasized that curriculum improvement is not effected solely by the publication of a program or teachers' guide. Rather, the effort which goes into the writing of such a program is of little value unless the program is introduced and interpreted to teachers in a manner which incites most of them to try it in their classrooms.

Denver's new program was designed to pull together several publications on special phases of teaching English and to provide continuity over the thirteen-year period in which most students are in school. Because of its comprehensiveness, the program is necessarily large and detailed. Although the statement of philosophy was developed in accordance with suggestions from teachers and reflects personal philosophies of most Denver public-school instructors, there still remain many teachers who disagree with one or more of the salient points of the philosophy of the program. In addition, effective use of the new program involves a change in teaching methods for many teachers. Consequently, the problem faced by administrators was, "How can we point out the values of the program and show teachers how to use the guide effectively

without running the risk of having teachers feel that the program is being imposed upon them by the administration?"

Denver public schools have a large number of committees to provide for teacher participation in policy-making decisions. Several curriculum committees cooperated in the development of the program. Committees on instruction and articulation committees took major responsibility for introduction of the program.

Teachers from all public schools and all levels are represented on committees on instruction, the major function of which is to recommend instructional programs and policies. These committees approved the program and the plans for its introduction.

Articulation committees function in five areas of Denver to effect policies in and to deal with problems unique to a certain area. All levels of instruction are represented in each of the five area committees.

The actual introduction of the program began with the articulation committees after plans were approved by the committees on instruction. All teachers in each of the five districts heard a general presentation of the program given by Bertha Handlan Campbell, a consultant who worked very closely with curriculum committees and writers during the development of the guide. This initial overview stressed the philosophy behind the program, the way it was developed, the contents of the guide, and implications and suggestions for teaching English in all classes.

Each district then held a series of supplementary meetings to consider specific values

<sup>1</sup> A description of this program and how it was produced may be found in "Unified English Program for Denver," by Jerry E. Reed, *The Clearing House*, Sept. 1953, pp. 10-12.



and uses of the guide at particular levels. These meetings provided for teachers on one level of instruction to meet with teachers of another level to strengthen the idea of continuity in the teaching of English.

Thus, within each district, kindergarten and first-grade teachers met together, and teachers of grades two to five, six to eight, and nine to twelve met in separate groups, with a member of one of the English curriculum committees acting as resource leader.

Although many teachers found these meetings helpful, some from a few schools felt that they were of little value. Part of this feeling could be attributed to seeming repetition due to the well-planned meetings which certain schools requested be held *before* the general introduction of the guide.

Frequent reports on the new program were made in *Instruction News*, a newspaper published monthly during the school year by the Department of Instruction.

During the second semester of the school year 1952-1953, an experiment was tried in connection with the introduction of the English program. Eight teachers, members of the Kindergarten Through Grade Twelve (K-12) English Committee, were released from classroom duties to work closely with teachers in each school and to help them know, understand, and use the new program.

At the elementary level, four teachers worked as two teams. Each team, consisting of one teacher from the primary grades and one from the intermediate grades, was able to make one visit to each of the seventy-two elementary schools. Larger schools had up to a day and a half while a small school's allotment of visiting time might be only half a day.

At the junior-high-school level, two teachers were able to spend a full day each week for a three-month period in each school. Because of the large number of teachers of English in senior high schools, two teachers

spent at least two and sometimes three days weekly for three months in each building.

In order to discharge their function, these eight teachers worked as resource persons in both individual and small-group conferences with teachers of English to discuss philosophy, methods, materials, and special problems connected with the program. They talked with entire faculties and with groups of teachers who did *not* have classes in English in order to point out the implications of the guide for the total school program. In addition, these resource people were called upon frequently to do demonstration teaching in order to illustrate methods which had been discussed.

The work of these eight teachers was not unrelated. They worked together for a full week before visiting schools in order to present the program with as little contradiction as possible. In addition, these teachers conferred frequently to benefit from one another's experiences.

Those teachers assigned to secondary schools worked very closely with coordinators. Each junior and senior high school has a permanently-assigned administrative official in charge of coordinating the instructional program in that building. Be-

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#### EDITOR'S NOTE

*Mr. Reed reported on Denver's new unified English program for all grades (K-12) in the September 1953 issue. In submitting this companion article he wrote, "School administrators in Denver were well aware that merely producing a teachers' guide in any given curriculum area would not automatically insure curriculum improvement. As a result, with the publication of this program in English, administrators decided to experiment with a combination of methods for introducing the program to teachers." Mr. Reed, who teaches English in Kepner Junior High School, Denver, Colo., tells about the five-pronged drive to sell teachers the new program.*

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ginning in September 1953, these coordinators are responsible for assisting teachers to understand and to use the guide in order to get the new program into classrooms.

Coordinators at the elementary level have similar responsibilities, but, because eighteen coordinators serve seventy-two elementary schools, their work is confined to teachers who have not completed their three-year probationary period. All elementary-school coordinators, however, offer continuing in-service assistance, orientation of new teachers, help with materials, and the like. In addition, those teachers who helped to develop and to introduce the program give aid to new teachers in the various schools to which they are assigned.

In summary, the introduction to teachers of Denver's *Program in English; A Guide for Teaching the Language Arts, Kindergarten Through Grade Twelve* was effected through the following steps:

1. Committees on instruction approved plans for introducing the program.
2. Articulation committees held meetings in each city area.

3. *Instruction News* reported to all teachers the unique features of the program and plans for its introduction.

4. Teachers from the K-12 English committee worked in every school to help teachers use the guide.

5. Coordinators offer continuing assistance and introduce program to new teachers.

How well does such a method work in helping teachers to improve the curriculum? The answer can be found only by surveying the teaching corps in order to determine what per cent of English teachers now make a real attempt to improve their own teaching through use of the guide.

It is important to emphasize that the guide offers *no single* method for teaching any of the English skills. Teachers must be receptive to suggestions, be ready to try them in the classroom, and be quick to modify practices which are not successful.

The *ultimate* evaluation of the program and its introduction will be seen in the behavior of the students. If pupils can be interested in communicating to the point of *demanding* help in improving their skills, the program will be highly successful.



### Group Unit for Social Studies

The social-studies classroom in a democracy should be the student's most realistic, practical experiment in democratic living, since the core of social studies is the promotion of ideals to make more worthy, responsible citizens. Recognizing that, in this changing world, such democratic experience should be encouraged, the group-unit method serves as a satisfactory medium. Here is the method that is fully democratic, objective in scope, and flexible enough to be adaptable to many classroom situations.

The group-unit is an integral combination of the most democratic method of group instruction and the educational unit based on a specific amount of work covered during some designated time duration of variable length. This system of teaching is based on pupil-teacher planning and organization, with shared responsibility. It contrasts with the question-answer technique, rote-memory idea, and the one-book approach, which, even in this day and age, persist.—JAMES J. HOGAN in *The Social Studies*.

### Do You Know Your Text?

If any science teacher were given a list of topics that a textbook for one of his courses *might* contain and were then asked to check those that it *did* contain, how correct would he be? Within the past three years in his graduate classes in science methods, the writer presented this problem to more than one hundred teachers. The responses averaged about sixty per cent correct.

Every teacher checked topics that his book *did* not contain and failed to check those that it *did* contain. Hence it was clear that these teachers were not as familiar with their textbooks as they might have been. Thus, many reading assignments were given without the teachers being clearly aware of what the student was to read, or had read.

As a result the student may not have had knowledge of subject matter that the teacher assumed he had, and may have had knowledge of which [the teacher] was not aware.—GEORGE GREISEN MALLINSON in *School Science and Mathematics*.



# Why the Council Can't RUN THE SCHOOL

By  
WILLIAM S. STERNER

**M**AYBE STUDENTS in your school have been heard criticizing principal and faculty in this way:

"Why can't the student council force the principal to buy the hall lockers we need in our school?" "We can't see why the faculty changed the rules for the honor roll without consulting us. Isn't that a matter for the students to decide?"

"Why shouldn't we punish students who break council rules?" "Our faculty insists on approving all nominees for officer positions in the student council. Don't we have full say on such matters?" "Why should the principal tell us we can't hire the dance band we wanted for the prom?"

Whenever questions of this sort are raised by students, it becomes readily apparent that students do not fully comprehend the areas of their authority in the school. It may have been explained to them sometime that students, and their elected representatives, do not have unlimited authority to legislate on all matters in any way that they please. However, the concept of student self-government is still with us and it manifests itself in many ways.

Today thinking adults and responsible students realize that we no longer subscribe to the theory that students can run the school without any direction, supervision, or help from the faculty and administration of that school. Even if the principal wished to delegate unconditionally any or all areas of responsibility, he could not do so legally or morally. He is responsible to his superiors for everything that goes on in his

school. Furthermore, it would be undesirable educationally for the principal to relinquish final authority in all matters to students who are in school primarily to learn to be better citizens. He has the responsibility of providing needed direction for this learning process.

The principal may, however, experimentally allow students to make certain decisions with the full realization on the part of all concerned that he may have to veto acts of the student council that he considers detrimental to the best interests of the school. The student council has partial or sole jurisdiction over certain activities only because the principal delegates such powers to the council.

Students must realize that adults live in a world which places many restrictions on them. Our Federal Government does not have unlimited authority. The Congress of the United States of America has power to levy taxes, but all bills for raising revenue must originate in the House of Representatives, and when finally passed by both houses, they must be signed by the President. Congress may not levy a duty on articles exported from any state. A state may not coin money or enter into any treaty or alliance with another state. By and with the advice and consent of the Senate, the President may make treaties provided two-thirds of the senators present concur.

These and other restrictions are found in our Federal Constitution. One sign of our maturity is the ability to live graciously within the bounds of our country's laws,



reasonable rules of health, and the limits of our pocketbook.

At the beginning of the twentieth century it was thought by some teachers and principals that we could turn over to the students full authority for many matters. Frequently we hear people speak of student self-government; however, we must recognize that, in fact, we have in most schools a form of student participation in school management.

Students have opportunities to practice good citizenship while they are still in school. They learn facts and attitudes about government in social-studies classes; the program of the student council allows them to practice many of the things learned in classes. Thus students may acquire desirable attitudes, such as a sense of law and order and intelligent respect for authority. As students mature they will increasingly assume self-direction.

A few years ago, a set of standards was developed by Robert G. Vanderlip and was later published in yearbooks of the National Association of Student Councils. The first criterion is described as the "foundation upon which good student council operation is based." This criterion states: "A good student council has clearly defined powers and responsibilities which it understands."

Some council constitutions indicate the source of powers of the student council. Others state, in a separate paragraph, that the principal has a veto power over actions of the council. Some councils operate under charters which are granted annually by the principal. However, it seems desirable to dignify the relationship between the principal and the council by formal recognition of it in the fundamental rules of the council.

The written constitution of the student council should clearly define the powers delegated to the council by mutual agreement between students, faculty, and administration. Some constitutions suggest areas of responsibility in broad general terms, but

the number of constitutions that prescribe long lists of specific powers seems to be increasing. In any event, it should be entirely clear to the students, either by statement in the constitution or by traditional practice, what the council may do and what it may not do. From time to time the provisions of the constitution will need to be explained to the student body.

Realizing that our concept of student council today does not infer self government, we must recognize that there are some areas of authority over which the students may not legislate. They may not make decisions on matters which are required by law, which are prescribed by the local board of education, or which necessitate judgments of professionally educated personnel. In this area students, individually or collectively, may feel compelled to express opinions, but it must be entirely clear to them that they may not pass rules and regulations contrary to state laws or other higher authority.

A few examples of these restrictions may help us to recognize areas on which pupils may not legislate.

New Jersey law requires that each school hold two fire drills each month and that all students in high school must take American history for a period of two years. The New Jersey state board of education regulates certification of teachers.

The local board of education makes decisions on such things as the hiring of teachers and principal, salaries to be paid, school holidays, location of the school building, and purchase of supplies and equipment. The faculty selects the textbooks to be purchased for particular courses and decides other matters requiring judgments based on professional training and experience. Teachers of individual subjects determine the kinds of assignments, provided the total amount of study meets state requirements.

Even though restrictions may appear to be insurmountable, there are many things which students, faculty, and administration



decide cooperatively. By far the largest area of council authority is the one in which students and faculty work together on school and community projects. This obviously is the heart of the whole idea of student participation in school management. There must be mutual faith and respect between the faculty and the students.

There are many examples of activities cooperatively planned and executed: safety campaigns, promotion of good school spirit, community service, civil defense, promotion of the care of school property, courtesy campaigns—just to name a few of these activities. The student council should have maximum control over its own funds, although such control should be guided by school policy and be subject to the principal's veto. In other words, the council should be able to designate the purpose for which the funds are spent but great care should be exercised in the bookkeeping and safeguarding of funds. Thus we can see that the control of council funds is a cooperative venture.

In matters of discipline, students and faculty must work together to help students to gain increasingly the self control necessary in a democracy. The student council can assist by informing students of school rules. Orientation programs can be organized by the council to acquaint new students with the school. Students can help their colleagues respect rules and regulations because it is the "thing to do" in that school. Handbooks can be revised periodically with the help of the student council.

However, negative aspects of discipline, such as police work and student courts, should be avoided by the student council in most schools. In the long run, the faculty and administration must enforce punishments even though a student group originally imposed the penalty.

If students have proved their competence in making decisions and carrying out projects cooperatively with the faculty, the principal and faculty may delegate to the stu-

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#### EDITOR'S NOTE

*In one of the Problem Clinics at a recent conference of the New Jersey Association of High School Councils, Dr. Sterner found that what was worrying many of the student delegates was the question of student-council authority: Why couldn't the council "force the principal" to do this, why did the faculty change that without "consulting the council," et cetera? This article is based upon the author's explanation to the students that the council movement today is based, not on the idea of student self-government, but upon the concept of student participation in school affairs. Dr. Sterner is assistant professor of education at Rutgers University, New Brunswick, N. J.*

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dents certain areas over which students have almost complete authority, subject, of course, to the principal's veto. Obviously these decisions should be made only on matters of direct and sole concern to the students. Also, in the case of failure resulting from students' decisions, only students should suffer. In no case should failure of the project bring adverse criticism on the faculty, administration, school, or community. Students must be willing to recognize their own responsibility for the success or the failure of a particular activity.

Examples of activities in this area of jurisdiction are difficult to find because schools vary a great deal in practice. Then too, limitations under which students operate are prepared cooperatively with the local faculty and administration. In any event, students have the right to develop public opinion in the school favorable to the work of the council.

Whenever the principal imposes a veto on legislation of the council, he should explain his position to the council. Thus, the students will be able to avoid a similar breach of contract at a later date. However, if students respect the limits of their authority,



they will not force the principal to use his right to veto acts of council.

Students should have final authority over the nomination and election of qualified persons as members or officers of the student council. Minimum qualifications for office should have been developed by joint action of students and faculty. Once determined, any student who meets the qualifications should be allowed to run for office. The choice of representatives by the students should be a right and responsibility of the students. In adult society we have few requirements for office; citizens must select the person they think will serve best. Why not give students ample opportunity to learn to make these decisions early in life?

Other examples of council activities over which students take virtually sole responsibility may not apply in all schools. However, a number of schools have allowed student groups to select the specific dance orchestra for a council dance. Very likely students are better qualified than the faculty to choose a dance band which the student dancers will like. Often student committees must abide by restrictions on the amount that may be paid for an orchestra, for how long it may be hired, and the form of the contract to be signed by students, band leader, sponsor, and principal.

In some schools, students are permitted to make decisions on the kinds of assembly programs, and the sort of decorations to be arranged for a particular dance. A few schools allow students to have considerable authority over the entire social program of the school, the system of awards for student participation in activities, or the planning of recreational and club activities.

In all cases, students must make decisions within the limits of good school practice. The faculty should not abdicate its responsibilities in the civic life of the school, for students cannot learn to participate in democratic society by experiencing anarchy.

Before students in a given school can hope to assume full responsibility for certain activities, they must prove to the satisfaction of the school's faculty and administration that they, the students, can make wise decisions and carry out their plans with reasonable success.

If the students have clearly demonstrated their ability to restrain themselves when matters are obviously not under the jurisdiction of the students, if they have shown their ability to work cooperatively on many projects with the faculty and administration, it will not be long before students individually and collectively can and will be given considerable authority in many areas.



## Avoid That Word "Laymen" as You Would Poison

It is now fashionable in educational circles to refer to laymen and lay participation, and to have conferences, commissions, and authorities on the subject. Formerly, these good folks were parents, friends, patrons, taxpayers, citizens, mothers, fathers, aunts, uncles, and grandfathers. Now they are nothing but laymen.

The three R's, three C's or the three X's will not be better or worse taught whether we have laymen or friends. But in that delicate and essential business of public relations, it can mean the difference between success and failure.

Who wants to give advice as a *layman*? Who wants a layman's advice? The very moment you label one a "layman," you brand him as "a man not a member

of a particular group, nor skilled in a particular pursuit." (Funk and Wagnalls Dictionary) Why demote our friends? Why stigmatize those who supply us with the raw material of our trade? . . .

When we consult with parents, friends, taxpayers, partners, we are sharing with equals. When we consult the layman we throw up a barrier which, consciously or unconsciously, lessens the intimacy and may cause an irritation.

Good public relations encourages the gathering of a host of friends. Schools and teachers can do it. They are doing it. But let's recognize them for what they are and call them "friends" (or partners, citizens, patrons, taxpayers, parents).—FRANK MEYER in *Michigan Education Journal*.



# ATOMIC AGE *"The maladjusted children are legion"*

## —OR COMIC AGE?

By  
CHARLES A. TONSOR

PHYSICISTS HAVE called this the atomic age. They have pointed to the changes that that age will usher in and the demands it will make for trained personnel. But those on the firing line of elementary and secondary education are not so sure about the atomic age for they see spreading over the country an education which exercises powerful controls over the minds and lives of young people—the Comic Age. For one young person interested in the atomic age, there are ten thousand or more interested in the comic age.

This comic age is already showing some of its characteristics—crimes of violence committed by those of tender years, sadism, sex deviation. Pistol-packing mamma has yielded to pistol-packing baby. The infant can be found in the carriage with Junior's pistol. The house without a gun is a rare domicile. And how often have we read about Willie or Mary using papa's pistol against papa or one of the kids! So great has been the increase in delinquency—over 30 per cent in less than a decade—that a committee of Congress will study it. In this increase we find one of the chief consequences of the comic age.

Herbert Carroll in his book has decried the emphasis on psychotic behavior as the chief element in delinquency. He writes: "Psychotic children are very rare but neurotic children are numerous and maladjusted children are legion."<sup>1</sup> Why are they legion? Crime comics have created in the minds of children a world far different

from the world of reality. They tend to act out their drives within the realm of the world of comics. Those who live in the realm of reality are compelled to thwart their desires and so maladjustment begins.

If we can break up the world of irrational action, torture, sadism, violence, murder, pistol-toting, and knife-plunging of the comics, glamor without work, we can adjust these young people perhaps in part. Being realists, though, we know that we shall inevitably be labeled "a rat," "a squealer," or "chicken." The dichotomy between the world of reality and the world of the comics and the pulp magazines is the basic cause of a large part of the behavior problems in high school and hence also of delinquency.

Unless the school can break down that comic world and substitute an equally attractive real world, the young person attends school—or does he?—by compulsion. Often he organizes gangs and hang-outs to satisfy the drives he has accumulated in the dream world. To combat this feeling is no easy task in the secondary schools. A "hate school" complex has already been created due to the greater attractiveness of the comic age and the drives resulting therefrom and the fact that school must thwart those drives.

Add to this the fact that both parents tend to ignore the child as he grows up—often both of them working, often at such hours that there is no family life—and he more and more accepts the life of the street as freedom and school as restraint. The result is a serious emotional imbalance, school

<sup>1</sup> Herbert Carroll, *Mental Hygiene: The Dynamics of Adjustment*, Prentice Hall, 1951, p. 13.



standing out clearly as an undesired and undesirable restraint. Here is the genesis of behavior problem children in school and delinquents out of school, since society also must thwart the desire of the young people to live in the comic age.

What have we as school people to help us crack the hold of the comic age?

1. Sound interpersonal relationships. Young people like to think that people have "some use" for them. Sometimes this comes from a chance remark, sometimes from analyzing difficulties for parents.

A young lad pokes his head into my office every morning. He was the butt of comrades' jokes and some teachers were not too understanding. He was uncouth, dull, sick. An affliction resulting from a physical malformation was the cause. His parent had to be summoned frequently. I happened in one day when the parent was present to take the lad home. I said to the parent: "It isn't fair to you or the boy to have to go through this procedure. Why don't you do something about it? There is something wrong; he is not a bad boy, he is a sick boy."

The parent did something about it. The boy was granted some relief and now every morning he pokes his head into the doorway, waves his hand, says "Hello" and is gone.

One of our girl students used to do the same because of a chance remark to a parent: "That girl isn't bad. She hasn't learned that the real world is different from the world in the Street and Smith publications." Christmas brought an angel for my Christmas tree in the office, bought with money that the magazine publishers lost.

2. Boys and girls want to belong to a group. The gang satisfies this instinct when no other avenues are open. Their elders join fraternal associations or unions or clubs. You will always find the unadjusted hanging out together—birds of a feather flock together and misery loves company.

When the extracurricular stoppage in New York city schools occurred and opportunities for extracurricular activity were curtailed, secret societies stepped in to fill the void. Jackets, sweaters, hats indicate their desire to be of a group and they are proud to be in a group. They will join groups out of school if they cannot join a group in school, and unfortunately they bring what goes on in these outside groups into school with them.

3. They want attention, the opportunity to "shine." If they don't get it in the course of school life, they will get it outside and then, in school, become the exhibitionists that try our souls. Remember from long ago, "Nobody loves me; I'm going out into the garden and eat worms?"

4. They want action, achievement. They will make things that can be displayed and thrive on praise of them. If nothing is given them that they can do, the Devil will find work for their idle hands.

5. They are "stick-in-the-muds." Unless considerable work has been done upon them to prepare for it, they resist change. "Why can't we have our teacher from last term?" "Why can't we do the same as the other class does?" Hence we must rationalize all changes.

6. They need a world of praise or suggestion. I stood behind a young man in an art class who was trying to draw the picture of a horse. His pencil went down in disgust: "I just can't draw a horse." "How about a jackass?" said I. He laughed, picked up his pencil and drew. He had seen pictures of the jackass in cartoons and he made the necessary changes to produce a horse—a fairly good horse. To my "That's a pretty good try," he beamed. Some young people, unable to adjust themselves, have earned the parental "You're just no good" and have come to believe it. I have had students tell me "I know I'm no good." A pat on the back gives them a lift.

But how is the teacher to discover those



in need of adjustment and what the needs are? Few are the teachers who haven't solved some of these questions by themselves. Teachers do still observe their students in action. Even a rough judgment helps to classify them—aggressive, show-off, quiet mouse, shirker, and so on. These are not scientific categories, it is true, but the grouping is a working procedure that makes attack on the problem of meeting the results of the comic age much simpler. If you want to see what a grip that age has on the youngster, take the comic book that this boy has secreted among his school books away from him, or a copy of *True Confessions* from a girl! Teacher observations are sufficiently accurate to permit the teacher to adjust his relations with the student to meet the particular reconstructional needs of the individual.

Sometimes this simple observation and classification will discover also the neurotic and the psychotic. The latter will not only resist remedial action but also friendly advances. The language may be intemperate and the general attitude, "Let me alone." Yet to leave him alone is the worst thing that could be done, and the teacher forcing himself on the individual would be equally bad. Only as the pupil discovers a friend in the individual teacher can progress be made and then, perhaps, not much. But once discovered, the psychotic is a subject for therapy by a specialist, and in this procedure the teacher can help.

If a teacher becomes really interested he may make informal use of certain objective tests. And if he gives such a test he should prepare the student beforehand, so that he wins his cooperation, and then should discuss it with him later so that the student gets the benefit of the findings. Three simple instruments of this sort are:

1. *The California Test of Personality.* It screens children for self-adjustment and social adjustment, some 144 items being divided between these two fields. The test

#### EDITOR'S NOTE

*Our many delinquents and maladjusted children, Dr. Tonsor believes, are so thoroughly in the grip of the comic books that they cannot function properly in the world of reality. The author, principal of Cleveland High School, Brooklyn 37, N. Y., suggests some techniques that he has found useful for "cracking the hold" of the comics on individual students. And he recommends three tests that teachers can use informally to get a better insight into the personality of pupils who seem to need attention.*

yields a profile which indicates the student's strength or weakness for twelve personality traits.<sup>2</sup>

2. *The Ohio Social Acceptance Scale*—an instrument for determining the friendship pattern of pupils.

3. *The Wishing Well.* This consists of an inventory of wishes, 20 in each of 8 categories.<sup>3</sup> These wishes give students an opportunity to reveal their emotional needs through the choice of the wishes. The degree of need is indicated by the frequency with which certain wishes are checked in the various categories.

Quotients and scores mean little or nothing to the student nor to parents, but the fact that children have definite things which are "musts" to them helps the teacher to understand what makes them tick and how to provide for a transition from the comic, shall we say, to the atomic age. Many a teacher learns later of the deep respect a student has for him although his recollection of the student is dim or doesn't place him very high in the achievement scale.

<sup>2</sup> Louis P. Thorpe, Willis W. Clarke, Ernest W. Tieg, *Manual of Directions, California Test of Personality, High School Level.* California Test Bureau.

<sup>3</sup> Louis E. Rath and Laurance Metcalf, "An Instrument for Identifying Some of the Needs of Children," *Educational Research Bulletin*, Oct. 1945, pp. 169-77.



What the student values, however, and what causes the deep feeling of esteem is that he recalls the teacher as an instrument

that forged his personality on the anvil of experience—that brought him from the comic into the atomic age.

## ♦

# Findings

## ♦

**SCIENCE & RELIGION:** Of about 1,000 science teachers in public secondary schools of Ohio who responded to a questionnaire, says Warren M. Davis in *Ohio Schools*, almost 44% of those in county and exempted-village schools stated that they were holding one or more positions of church leadership. Some of them were holding as many as 4 separate church positions at the same time. Among the science teachers in city secondary schools, almost 50% hold church office. These facts, comments Mr. Davis, "may surprise non-school people."

**RECRUITING ATHLETES:** Practices and abuses in the business of college recruitment of high-school athletes were the subject of an inquiry in which 2,531 high-school principals participated, reports Otto Hughes, chairman of the investigating committee, in the *Quarterly* of the North Central Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools.

Principals' replies were arranged in 4 groups according to the size of enrolments in their schools—and readers should keep in mind that it is the larger high schools that are most likely to have the promising and publicized athletes. From 19% to 30% of principals in the larger schools reported that college authorities had asked them to send transcripts of athletes' credits direct to the college athletic department rather than to the "duly constituted admissions office." High-school principals in the two smaller groups of schools reported fewer of such requests.

A good athlete usually was approached by college representatives from 1 to 5 times in his senior year, and even up to 15 or 20 times—in one case, 75 times! From 6% to 9% of principals in schools of all sizes reported having worked to get athletic scholarships for their good athletes.

Colleges usually wanted the athletes regardless of their scholarship records. Of the athletes who

received athletic scholarships after graduating from the larger high schools, from 19% to 25% could not be recommended as college material by their principals. One boy got such a scholarship, although he ranked 155th in a class of 157. From 3% to 8% of high-school coaches said they had encouraged athletes to accept money payments, gifts, "and/or athletic scholarships as inducements to enrol in some particular college."

Some colleges had persuaded athletes to leave high school before graduation and enrol in college in time to take part in spring practice, assuring them that they could "finish their high-school credits" at college, although usually that proves impossible. Other annoyances were reported by principals: Some college representatives called athletes from their classes, without getting permission, to work on them. Alumni may camp in a boy's home, keeping him up till all hours, until he agrees to go to their college just to get rid of them.

**9% WERE FAILING:** At the close of the second marking period of a recent semester in Needham, Mass., High School and Junior High School, 110 of approximately 1,200 pupils (9%) were failing in one or more subjects, says William F. Valdina in *Massachusetts Teacher*. The "most startling fact" discovered in a study of the 110 failing pupils was that the majority had the mental ability to succeed.

Some 83% of them had IQ's above 90, showing average-or-better intelligence. (In the high school, 90% of the failing pupils, and in the junior high school, 75% of those failing, had average-or-better intelligence.) In the junior high school 4 times as many boys as girls were failing, and in the high school twice as many boys as girls were in scholastic trouble. Of the 110 pupils, 76 were failing in one subject, 29 in two subjects, and 5 in three or more subjects.

The four courses that caused the bulk of the trouble, and the number of failures in each, were: mathematics, 41; science, 33; English, 27, and social studies, 22. A significant fact is that of the 60 pupils who were failing in the high school, more than one-third had IQ's of 110 to 131. The faculties of the two schools haven't found the answer to the problem of failures among students of good intelligence—but are working on it.

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**EDITOR'S NOTE:** Good, bad, indifferent or important, there is a great amount of counting studies and other research going on in the field of education. We think readers will be interested in brief, unqualified summaries of some main points in some of the findings. Lack of space prohibits much explanation of methods used, degree of accuracy or conclusiveness, and sometimes even the scope of the study.



# Telephone Techniques:

## The Course at Fort Scott

By  
OPHELIA K. HENDERSON

FORT SCOTT Senior High School and Junior College is giving its students an opportunity to learn more about the telephone and how to use it effectively. Officials of the school have added a new course, Telephone Techniques, to the curriculum because they believe that a polished telephone manner may make the difference between success or failure socially or in business; that a telephone call often takes the place of a letter or a telegram; and, therefore, that effective use of the telephone has become as important as a course in business writing or the correct use of the typewriter.

In the early days, when the telephone was in its infancy, people frequently answered by saying, "Ahoy." Later, the conventional salutation became "Hello," but this too has rather generally been discarded for more effective and informative openings. The classic salutation used by the English for a time was, "Are you there?"—quite a pertinent question, after all.

Are you there—with a backlog of habitually correct, polished, effective techniques? Undisputably, the telephone is one of the most powerful economic instruments of our modern world—the life line of business, and a dynamic factor in public relations. But the average person does not know how to use it effectively.

Of course, if you should ask the next ten people you meet if they know how to use the telephone, they would probably consider the question a ridiculous one. Know how to use the telephone? Certainly, they know how to use it! Everyone knows how to

use the telephone! But do they? Actually, we have many fumbling 'phoners, while only a mere handful of users really understand and apply effective telephone techniques in conducting their business and social affairs.

Perhaps many people have fallen into the habit of assuming that they use the telephone effectively because they use it so frequently, and so casually. But because it is used *so often*, it is essential to learn how to use it expertly. Actually, it is used the least thoughtfully of any of the means of modern communication at our disposal. Yet it is one of the most intense and concentrated methods of communication known. On the telephone, you can be a success—or a failure—in less time than in any other way in this communicating world.

Everyone wants success. But success, no matter what we are going to do or where we are going to do it—at home, in the office, among friends—depends upon people and our relations with them. Everytime a telephone rings and is answered, there are people—invisible to one another—attempting to transact business or attend to a social matter. This calls for much more training and skill than if they were in a face-to-face situation. The telephone demands instantaneous and clear-cut decisions. Once you have spoken into the telephone, what you say and the impression which you make are past recall. The best way to meet such a situation is to accumulate a reserve of effective telephone attitudes and skills; then, when the time comes, act with poise and confidence.



A mastery of telephone techniques does not operate within a narrow sphere; rather, such mastery has a very definite and dynamic effect upon you and your whole personality as well as upon others. If you can develop poise and *finesse* on the telephone, you are on your way to self-improvement, personality growth, and leadership—significant assets in whatever you may hope to accomplish.

Efficiency at the telephone is an excellent way to overcome certain personal weaknesses and deficiencies. If you are a rather plain person, if you have a physical handicap, or if you are below average in certain qualifications, you may make yourself invaluable and successful because you know how to handle with skill people on the telephone.

Although our course emphasizes the business use of the telephone, the attitudes and skills presented are basic in both social and business life and cannot logically be separated. Social calls, as well as business calls, are made for a specific purpose and therefore take on a business-like aspect, and should be conducted in a business-like manner. Business poise and social poise are but two facets of one activity: using

the telephone confidently and correctly. Whether one plans to enter the business world or merely to conduct the affairs of everyday life, he will need to know how to use the telephone effectively.

The course might be described as a laboratory course. First, the students study selected telephone techniques from printed material and instructions, and by listening to lectures by the instructor; then they discuss the especially significant points related to desirable techniques. This is followed by viewing instructional films or by listening to instructional records demonstrating the application of the attitudes and skills selected for intensive study. Then come discussion and interpretation of what was seen and heard.

Working in pairs, the students next plan, dramatize, and carry on demonstration conversations before the group over the practice telephones installed in the classroom. These telephones may be some which the telephone company has installed, or they may be toy telephones—some excellent ones are available. A screen may be set up between the participants to make the situation more realistic, or the telephoners may sit on opposite sides of the room, each talker facing the wall.

The final procedure is analysis, critical comment, and evaluation by both instructor and students of the conversational techniques demonstrated. Very often students request that they be allowed to repeat the conversations in an attempt to iron out bungling techniques and awkward errors. In this way, students become telephone-minded. Every time they use the telephone or someone calls them on the telephone, they have material for analysis, study, discussion, and evaluation.

A few of the aspects of telephonic communication covered in the course are:

- Care of the telephone
- Helpful telephone devices
- The telephone voice
- Telephone diction

#### EDITOR'S NOTE

*This short course in "Telephone Techniques" was developed and is conducted by Mrs. Henderson, instructor in English and Communication at the Fort Scott, Kan., Junior College and Senior High School. She credits the Southwestern Bell Telephone Co. with an assist by making certain materials available for her classes, but she also has spent three years perfecting a manual which the students use. The course, she says, will fit nicely as a unit of study in regular speech, English, communication, business, adult education, and core curriculum courses. The author will be glad to answer CLEARING HOUSE readers' inquiries about the materials and manual she uses.*



## Telephone courtesy

Telephone listening—how to improve your telephone listening, and how to make listening more comfortable for the other person

## Telephone personalizing

Effective opening and closing techniques

How to handle calls for others

How to obtain and how to give information over the telephone

How to make appointments by telephone, including the appointment for the employment interview

How to use the telephone in emergencies

How to buy by telephone

How to use directories—alphabetic, classified, special, and foreign

Long-distance services—how to use them

Mobile telephone—use, techniques, scope

How to file a telegram by telephone

Art of telephone selling

Early in the semester the course in Telephone Techniques was interpreted to the community through a local radio broadcast conducted by the instructor and the students enrolled in the course. This new course has been enthusiastically received by both the community and by the students, and it has won a recognized place in the curriculum at Fort Scott.



## Recently They Said:

### Interest Units

This is the era of the interest-centered unit. An increasing number of teachers are reporting encouraging experiences in relating activities in English to common interests of the group. These reports attest to aroused student interest, to language learning in a meaningful context, to unsegregated provision for differences within the group, and to the development of social skills.—MORRIS FINDER in *The English Journal*.

### Bootless Errand

Too many [colleges and universities] have no central purpose, or if they do, it is an inferior one. Once I asked a Harvard administrator what the central purpose of Harvard was. He pondered for a moment and then replied with conviction: "To develop Harvard men."

Too often the curriculum centers around the athletic stadium. Some enterprising colleges are now giving Ph.D.'s in mortuary science. (This should please Forest Lawn!) Many universities apparently are a collection of buildings in search of a soul.—FREDERICK MAYER in *Phi Delta Kappan*.

### Sloppy School Handbooks

While we can truthfully say that school newspapers and yearbooks are being continually improved, we cannot say the same thing about the handbook. Issued less frequently, the typical handbook is built around (copied is a more accurate

expression) earlier editions, and reflect all of their mistakes and misemphases—illogical material, amateurish organization, unsuitable writing, and sloppy printing and binding. All of which is another way of saying that handbook committees have learned very little about their job.—EDITORIAL in *School Activities*.

### Kaleidoscopic

When we talk about learning, we are talking about something that happens to students. And we are talking about students so amazingly alike and like us that we can usually understand them by truly understanding ourselves, yet so amazingly different from one another in a million little ways that they provide a continuous succession of surprises and challenges that make teaching the stimulating, if sometimes hectic, profession that it is. . . .

We have in our classes Alec the near genius, William the near moron, and Alice who manages to make B's when she wants to. We have Cynthia the bright but homely girl from across the tracks, and Margaret the beautiful, popular girl from Nob Hill. We have Warren whose only interest in life is Shropshire sheep, Lily who considers herself too tall, and George who plans to be a writer and is always writing cryptic comments on a little memo pad.

These students and their teacher, who is probably developing a twitch in his left eye, and has a vague, half-formed idea that he is being followed, form the kaleidoscopic pattern of the classroom experience.—ROBERT LOWELL STEVENS in *Illinois English Bulletin*.



# DOLLAR BILL:

## Its Day in Class

By  
FRANK MEYER

**D**OLLAR BILLS are always fascinating. Nearly everyone is eager to earn them and more eager to spend them. While 143,000 are printed every hour of the year, and there are enough in circulation to give 7 1/3 to every person in the country,<sup>1</sup> few people take time to look at them. It will be an enjoyable and profitable experience for any teacher to lead his class in an introduction to the dollar bill.

Let's take a dollar bill and go over it together. It is appropriate that the portrait of the first president should appear on this note, the paper currency most commonly used. While the government is manufacturing three types of paper money today (silver certificates, federal reserve notes, and U. S.

<sup>1</sup> The Bureau of Engraving and Printing reported that from July 1, 1952 through June 1953, it made 1,236,396,000 dollar bills, and that on June 30, 1953 there were 1,711,193,542 in circulation.

### EDITOR'S NOTE

*A Congressman recently suggested that the U. S. Treasury Department do something to explain "the allegory and the beauty of our currency for the children of our land." Apparently the Treasury was too busy counting money. But Mr. Meyer heard of the suggestion and gathered the facts about the dollar bill, which he presents for the benefit of teachers who might like to take the matter up in class. The author, a social-studies teacher in Grand Haven, Mich., Junior High School, has a leave of absence this school year on a Ford Fellowship, and is working as a member of the staff of his Congressman, Gerald R. Ford, Jr., in Washington, D. C.*

notes), all the "ones" are silver certificates. As is indicated on the face of the note, this means that for every paper dollar in circulation there is in the Treasury a silver dollar or an equivalent in silver or silver bullion. Upon presenting the certificate (receipt) to any bank a person may request and receive a standard silver dollar.

The statement on the left side that "this certificate is legal tender . . ." simply means that it can be used to pay any debt.

The serial number, printed twice on the note, is peculiar to this one piece of currency. No two bills of the same denomination and series have the same serial number. A given certificate can thus be identified. A star before the number indicates that this note is a replacement for one mutilated in the course of manufacturing.

The serial numbers and the treasury seal are printed in blue on all silver certificates. On federal reserve notes they are in green, and on U. S. notes they are in red.

The treasury seal is just to the right of the portrait. It is older than the Constitution itself, having been used since 1782. Upon close observation one can see the shield on which appear the scales of justice; a key, the emblem of official authority; and the thirteen stars for the original states. The Latin words around the shield mean, "The Seal of the Treasury of North America." "Washington, D. C." printed over the seal indicates the seat of the government and the city where the currency is made.

"Series 1935" shows that this note is one whose major design was determined in the



year 1935. A letter, such as "E," following the date means that five minor revisions have been made in the series since 1935, each subsequent one bearing a letter in alphabetical order.

A facsimile of the signature of both the Treasurer of the United States, Mrs. Ivy Baker Priest, and the Secretary of the Treasury, George M. Humphrey, is found on all currency printed today.

In the upper left hand corner and in the lower right hand corner one will find a small capital letter, ranging from "A" through "R." This is called the "check letter." Paper currency is now printed in sheets of 18 notes each. Each note is lettered to indicate its position on the sheet during printing. Following the letter in the lower right hand corner is the "Face Plate Number," such as 7,625. This is the number of the engraved steel plate which prints 18 bills at a time. It is the 7,625th plate produced to make dollar bills of series 1935. To the last count this plate had manufactured 3½ billion dollar bills. Another small number appears on the back. This is the face plate number for the back. The two sides are printed separately, the back being done some time before the face is completed.

The only reason for having the check letter and face plate number on the certificate is to assist the secret service in detecting counterfeit money. If an agent thinks a certain dollar bill is counterfeit because of a very slight defect, he can easily check this against the engraved plate or a certified reproduction from this plate.

The back of all one dollar silver certificates pictures the front and reverse sides of the great seal of the United States. To

the left is the reverse side. A pyramid of 13 steps (original states) indicates a necessity for a firm foundation for the new nation, while the eye of Providence was to show God's care over the country. The Latin words circling the top mean, "He (God) has favored our undertakings." The Roman numerals at the base are for 1776, the year of independence. The Latin below reads, "New Order of the Ages."

The front of the seal at the right is more familiar. The baldheaded eagle represents the nation. In his right talon is an olive branch with 13 leaves and berries, the symbol of peace; and in the left are 13 arrows, the symbol of preparedness and defense. The eagle's face is toward peace. The shield with 13 stripes is said to be the symbol of force and unity. Above the eagle, 13 stars forming a constellation are breaking through a cloud; a new nation is born. The banner held by the eagle carries the Latin motto of the United States, "One out of many."

Congressman Sieminski of New Jersey recently asked Treasurer Mrs. Priest if she couldn't "put out a story or do something to dramatize the allegory and the beauty of our currency for the children of our land."<sup>3</sup> He went on to say that "the American tradition has a healthy respect for money. American currency tells a beautiful and symbolic story. Our history is epic. The character of our people is stamped on our currency and coins." It is hoped that this article will be helpful in explaining the dollar bill and its symbolism.

<sup>3</sup> Treasury Department Hearings before the Subcommittee of the Committee on Appropriations for 1954 (House of Representatives), page 253.



### *Status of Activity Tickets*

A recent investigation showed that only about one in four of the secondary schools studied issue and use an activity ticket. This is amazing because it is commonly assumed that all schools use this plan

to finance their activities. The advantages of the ticket plan are so numerous that it is difficult to see why so many schools do not use it.—EDITORIAL in *School Activities*.



# It's One Way to *The adventures of a senior trip sponsor* EARN A LIVING

By  
GERALD L. POOR

THE ALARM went off in the darkness of 4:00 A.M. and the annual Senior Skip Day began. Six cars and thirty-two people were to leave from the schoolhouse an hour later, but I had to drive across town to call for Lawrence and I wanted to be at school in plenty of time. I gulped my coffee, hoped that my wife would go back to sleep, and was on the way.

In front of the silent school there was activity. Cars were being loaded, and seniors in all stages from stupor to hysteria were appearing. I had the list of names, prearranged by carloads, and was checking off the new arrivals just as the office phone started to ring. I couldn't get in the school—no keys. The phone continued to ring. I drove home, and was relieved to find that the message had come there. Arline, six miles out in the country, would be late. The car had a flat tire, and the jack wouldn't work. She said she would be in "very soon." I returned to school and checked the other five cars. All were ready and in line so they were allowed to start on while my group settled down to wait.

My mind went over the details of the trip again. The cars had all been serviced. All had road maps, expense money, and insurance. All had good tires, and were recent models. The drivers' meeting had gone over everything that could be foreseen. The regulations governing the class had been drawn up and discussed, and copies sent home to parents. I hoped that everything would go well, and that we'd have a good time. The weather wasn't promising, for it was a gray misty morning, with low-hanging clouds that threatened another rainy day.

Still, I thought, the weather couldn't affect us too much.

Sixty miles across the Straits into Michigan's Upper Peninsula we planned to travel. We could leave our cars at Soo Junction and go on an excursion trip up the Tahquamenon River to the famous falls. We had to be at Mackinaw City to cross on the 7:30 ferry at the Straits, and even with the delay we had ample time to get there. I felt a sense of confidence in our planning and relief that the class hadn't wanted to spend too much of their money on a trip. This way they would have funds to use on other graduation expenses. My mental processes were cut short. Arline arrived, and we were off.

The other cars had all arrived safely in Mackinaw City. Assorted seniors were lounging around. Most of them were eating sandwiches, though one carload had gone into a restaurant for coffee. I herded them onto the car ferry, well ahead of time, for the boat trip to St. Ignace. It takes an hour to cross and they made good use of it. Seniors taking pictures, seniors on every deck, seniors in the engine room, seniors going to the lunch baskets, seniors coming back heavily laden from the lunch baskets—seniors everywhere!

It wasn't until all but twenty miles of the remaining sixty had been covered that Bolinger's car pulled out of line, and Billy reported a strong odor of gasoline. Small wonder. The carburetor poured forth gas—a miniature gusher.

"No trouble at all," said Billy. "I can fix that in no time."

He took the carburetor off. The other



cars came back, and were sent on again. Raindrops beat against the gravel road. The carburetor still wouldn't work, and time was passing. I got out Billy's tow-rope and we made the two cars fast.

Twenty miles of wet roads lay between us and Soo Junction. The tow-rope broke four times, once dropping away back on top of the last hill. Each time the rope was retied, it got shorter. The last break came at a point from which Bolinger was able to coast in to the parking space, and only a little behind schedule.

There followed a great bustle of unpacking, and a conference with the quiet, competent looking young man representing Joe Beach, operator of the excursion.

"I'll get the car fixed," he assured me. "I often have to help out this way. You just go right ahead with the kids. If I have to take the car to Newberry I'll get it fixed." Such assurances carried conviction.

The class was briskly making off down the railroad tracks, laden with their belongings. Across the railroad line was a narrow-gauge track upon which were mounted a tractor and two coaches. Though the coaches had no sides, wide roofs offered protection from the fine rain in the air. Across the flat plains this conveyance would carry us to the banks of the Tahquamenon River, where the boat trip would begin. Behind us, on the railroad, a long freight rumbled. I gave our "engineer" the signal to be on our way.

At once the cry arose on all sides, "Wait for Bill!" And well we might, for poor Bill was on the far side of the main line, barred off by the freight train.

"It's not Bill we're worried about," John told me, "but that case of pop packed in ice is valuable." It and Bill joined us in due process, and we jerked into uneven motion that ended at the riverbank. There the party boarded the big launch "Betty B," with its two-deck barge lashed alongside, and the river trip began.

The Tahquamenon is a beautiful river

flowing northward to Lake Superior through country that has no roads and abounds in wildlife. The wooded shoreline slid endlessly past, but the fine rain made it unpleasant on deck.

The cabin full of seniors didn't mind that. They were too busy eating again. A bewildering variety of food appeared, and the hot coffee sold on board was popular. It washed down an enormous amount of food.

Baskets put away again, the class broke into groups according to interests. Some of the boys had to inspect the engine. Chuck's father hunted with Joe Beach in the fall, so Chuck was given a chance to steer the craft for awhile. John and Bill settled down to argue, and their pounding and shouting rang through the cabin. It broke in on the group singing and talking around the heater. There were the romancers, too, lost in worlds of their own. One boy decided that he'd become a man and went out for a smoke. He looked greenish for hours afterwards.

As the rain slackened, hardy seniors went out to watch the banks and the river. Arline's cries for mercy soon startled the kingfishers. Of course, no one would really throw her overboard, but some of the boys were very convincing.

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#### EDITOR'S NOTE

*That day that Dr. Poor sponsored the Senior Skip Day excursion the first emergency occurred around dawn, and the last after dark. In between there were enough alarms and crises to keep him busy. The moral probably is that you can plan carefully and try to foresee all contingencies—but that there are more things in heaven and earth than are dreamed of in your planning. Dr. Poor, who recalls this occasion from his high-school teaching days, is now a member of the faculty of Central Michigan College of Education, Mount Pleasant, Mich.*

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At the tie-up above the falls, the party disembarked. The rain had stopped, and it was warm on the trail through the woods. It was also wet and slippery. The roar of falling water came from the left, and glimpses of the river showed a hastening, foam-flecked stream rushing toward the brink. We came out below the falls. As the seniors looked at the 200-foot span taking its 60-foot jump and listened to the pound of tons of water, it was evident that they were impressed. Spray rose high into the air and a milky covering circled on the gorge below the falls. It was what we had come to see, and it was worth it.

Eventually a straggling line came back to the boat and got out the sandwiches. I counted to see that they were all there. Three short. Mr. Beach blew the horn. We waited, and then I sent Ebbie to go back down the trail. Then I sent someone after Ebbie, and soon all returned. Virginia had fallen down and wrenched her knee.

The return trip was better, for the rain stopped and it was warmer. The decks were almost pleasant. Jean and Pat put on a boxing act, combined with hysteria. It was about 7:00 when we got back to the cars. The last ferry at St. Ignace left at 9:00. Sixty miles and two hours to do it in.

"The cars are all ready to go," the attendant assured us as we paid him. "One of the other cars had the lights on and it was locked. I took out the headlights." John unlocked the car, but we couldn't get one headlight to go together again.

"My car won't start," Bolinger reported. "It's out of gas."

No siphon being available, the attendant offered to drive me to the closest gas station. "It's nine miles, but he's always open," he said, and we took off. When we wheeled into the station, it was locked. Seven thirty. Back we went.

On the way we met the other cars safely on their way, including John's. One of his headlights was still out of commission, but that wasn't our chief problem now.

The young attendant suggested, "You get your load to the ferry. I'll get some gas into that car somehow and send them on their way."

It seemed the only thing to do. I checked with Bolinger to see that he had enough money. Four boys rode with him, and I felt pretty certain that they weren't going to get back home that night. It was a quarter of eight when I started for St. Ignace, turning my problem over and over as I drove. I decided to parcel Virginia, Arline, and Lawrence out in other cars and stay in St. Ignace with the last load. It didn't seem right to just go on home and leave Billy and his companions, although I wasn't afraid that they'd suffer any.

Mile after mile slipped behind and darkness came. My gas gauge registered just about zero. Towing that car had been hard on the gas, harder than I realized. I watched for a service station. Fourteen miles passed and panic ran riot in my mind. The lights of St. Ignace reflected in the sky ahead but they took an unbelievably long time in really coming into view. Going up the last hill before town the motor sneezed once. Pushing in the clutch, we coasted over the crest and into a gas station just beyond. It was ten minutes of nine.

In the ten minutes before sailing time everything was arranged. Loads were rearranged and responsible seniors were designated to see the parents of the missing and assure them that their offspring were in no danger. The reshuffled four carloads drove aboard, rather solemn-faced, and a decidedly glum class adviser watched them go. Then he got out to talk to a ferry attendant about places to stay in St. Ignace.

"Why don't you get your tickets now?" he suggested. "If the other car doesn't come you can use them tomorrow."

It seemed like a good idea and I started to drive the short distance down the street to the office. Just then up drove Bolinger, excited eyes burning darkly as he leaned out of the car window.



The buying of tickets was a frantic process then, and the backing and turning seemed an endless and time-consuming process. I led the way down to the ferry. Workmen were putting up the barriers to bar off any more cars. A flash of headlights, dim to bright, attracted their attention, and they cleared the way. We drove breathlessly aboard.

A wildly hilarious scene took place there among the cars on the already moving ferry. Whooping and yelling and loud talking drove waves of sound against the steel sides. Natalie smote me on the back so hard that I nearly took the count. Bolinger told his story. They had started pushing his car out to a gas station when an Indian came by who had a siphon. They had obtained some gas, driven to the station for more, and after that they had practically flown. They must have! The whole crew was so excited that some of them neglected the sandwiches for a full half-hour.

In Mackinaw City at ten we went into a gas station to prepare for the last lap. John had his headlight fixed. Several, including my three passengers, went into a restaurant for coffee. I joined them, feeling a great sense of relief. Nothing left to do but roll home. Cars all fixed, and no parents to explain to. All present and accounted for, and back on schedule.

Near Cheboygan, sixteen miles on the way, I came up behind the Bolinger car. They stopped in town and explained that they wanted to get their coffee. Resolved to leave no one behind me, I granted their request and drew up to wait for them.

It was a rather drowsy crowd that sat there, but Lawrence soon stirred us up. He spoke to me. "You're going to shoot me," he said. "I left my suede jacket in Mackinaw City in the restaurant."

You couldn't shoot Lawrence for that. You couldn't even be cross about it, though it was rather discouraging. There was only one thing to do, and that was go back after it.

Unfortunately the restaurant was closed. Inquiry in the tavern next door disclosed where the owner lived, but a trip to the house found it dark and silent. We went back to the tavern, where we got the name of the restaurant keeper and left ours. The tavern keeper said he would see that the jacket was returned. We took a last look at it through the darkened window and went on our way again. The jacket, incidentally, was returned.

About twenty miles south of Cheboygan we again came up behind Bolinger, who was traveling at about thirty. He could hardly be blamed for that, but there was a lot of road to cover and I suggested a somewhat faster pace.

It didn't last long, and pretty soon he stopped again. "I can smell gas again," he reported.

Investigation with a flashlight revealed a return of the carburetor trouble. It was pretty close to Wolverine. We drove the car slowly into the darkened, sleeping village. One gas station was open, but the attendant did no repair work. He obviously knew no more about the trouble than we did. The town's mechanic might or might not appreciate being roused from sleep. There was no tow rope.

A boy of some twelve years was in the station. He volunteered to go out and steal a clothesline. On being told that it wouldn't be heavy enough to pull a car, he replied that he thought he would like to steal one anyway, just for the fun of it. He plunged off into the outer blackness, returning presently with a light rope line.

Contributing to the delinquency of a minor, I took the line. Heavy cartons from behind the station were broken up and lashed around the rear bumpers of Bolinger's car for protection, and to make a long story short I pushed his crippled car the rest of the way home. It was approximately forty miles, and slow going. As there was scant traffic at that hour, I let him coast so that he could be free to maneuver, and



frequently jarred both cars when making contact again. There were assorted sighs of relief when that Dearborn masterpiece came to a final stop.

There remained considerable driving to do in returning two carloads to their homes,

and Arline had to be taken six miles east of town. That seemed almost like the last straw, but it involved no mechanical difficulties. They all got back safely; there was food left over. They reported a wonderful experience, and another senior excursion was at an end.



## Local Government Workshop: Seniors of 8 High Schools Meet with the Politicians

Local government came alive for some 300 seniors of Williams County last spring. It happened when Montpelier High School sponsored a local government workshop, aided by Michigan's Hillsdale College.

Prior to the workshop, meetings were held with a planning committee of teachers of government and two students selected from each of the eight high schools in the county. Purpose of this first meeting was to discover the problems which youth wanted to discuss. A training period was then conducted by Lawrence J. Taylor, of the Hillsdale faculty, to brief high-school students who would help run the workshop. The task of inviting local and state officials to this civic event was delegated to students of each of the county schools.

On the day of the big occasion, students and teachers assembled in the Montpelier auditorium to fire questions at officials ranging from a state supreme court justice to a local justice of the peace. Early in the meeting, orientation talks, limited to five minutes each, were given by a member of the state executive committee of one of the political parties, a high-school student, and a high-school principal.

The feature attraction at the forenoon session was a "Town Meeting." Every person present shared in this program. The Phillips 66 Discussion Method was used. The audience was organized into small clusters of six persons. In each group acquaintances were made and a chairman and secretary selected. It was the duty of the chairman to make sure that each person offered a pertinent question for discussion. After the secretary recorded the six proposed questions, the group decided upon the one which their spokesman would ask the appropriate panel official.

Fifty sub-groups were formed, each eligible to ask one question. Dr. Taylor, as moderator, maneuvered through the audience giving assistance. This

method eliminated much of the usual pump-priming for floor questions which often discredits free discussion.

The state, county, and municipal officials participating in the project were seated at the front of the auditorium, but not on the stage, where they would be higher than their young constituents. Each panel of officials was designated by printed signs—taxation, legislation, political parties, public health. The student spokesmen directed their questions to the appropriate panel of officials, each time demanding full and non-evasive answers from them.

Here are some of the questions asked by the youth of our county. Why are young men under 21 old enough for military service but not old enough for voting? Why is the Ohio speed law of 50 miles per hour not enforced? Why are people who are able to work on county relief? In many instances the students put the officials on the spot but they retaliated by questioning the students.

At noon the assembly was adjourned to the school cafeteria, where students and officials lunched together. The senior was thus given the added thrill of going home and telling Mom and Dad that he had had lunch with the assistant state attorney general or maybe the county treasurer.

The afternoon activity was devoted to separate meetings held in different rooms of the school building. Each panel group, such as civil service or law enforcement, served as the nucleus of these meetings. These separate sessions were conducted by student leaders who presented questions not acted upon in the morning. Thus no student submitted a question in vain. A student recorder in each special group listed the questions and the remarks that were heard in these meetings.

"Senior Government Day" is a bigger and better step toward making tomorrow's citizen an informed citizen.—FLOYD E. BARCUS in *Ohio Schools*.



# NO REQUIRED LIST:

## Fun and Discrimination in Reading

By  
SISTER MARY ALOISE, S.N.D.

BEFORE THIS school term I was not at all convinced that students could or would choose wisely reading matter to supplement class work in English. I felt that they needed the guidance of an adult who knows what the good books are. I also thought it imperative to give them a list of books broad enough in scope to choose from, with some allowance made for exceptions in the case of mature students.

That was before September 1953. Since then I have changed my mind because I have learned better. I am thankful that the years, although catching up with me physically and leaving their toll, have not rendered me too decrepit mentally to learn from experience. I am now a confirmed believer that students, even freshmen and sophomores, can be taught, and should be taught, to choose wisely enough on their particular age levels.

Since the first day of school this term, busy young readers have kept me hopping, trying to read all the excellent books they had discovered, read, and reported on, books which I had not known had been written. Not all these books would be accepted by critics as first-rate literary art, but most of them would be listed as having definite values and undersurface elements, which make them profitable reading for ninth- and tenth-grade students.

An investigation of freshman reading in various parts of the country reveals that a very large percentage of students today are reading on a level three years below their chronological age. The result is that when they are given an assignment in such a book

as *Ivanhoe*, the majority are at a loss and cannot understand what they read. In a recent trial with this book, some students gave up at the first attempt and had to be helped; others stated that they had read the assigned chapters three times without understanding what they had read. What is the cause of this failure? Is the English used by Scott so far removed from modern English that the students are justified in their lack of comprehension?

Everyone knows that the language and style characteristic of writers of this atomic age are far different from those of nineteenth-century writers. It requires a great amount of heavenly patience to plow through a "classic" today with a group of freshmen. I am not at all advocating the scrapping of such works from the curriculum, but I do think that we shall have to face the situation realistically.

In later life students will not be limited to a literary diet made up of such books as they laboriously read in our schools. It seems advisable, therefore, to encourage freshmen and sophomores to read books which are written for them in the time in which they live. If they learn to read well and much, they may cultivate a taste for novels of the past, especially when they reach the junior and senior levels.

It is essential, however, that they learn to read books written by serious writers, and not those on the comic-book level. Class study of the "classics" should not be neglected nor omitted. There will be some who will continue to read other books of this classification.



Recently a teacher wrote that over fifty per cent of the 247 freshmen entering her school were reading at or below the sixth-grade level. Only one-fifth were at or above the ninth-grade standard. She also stated that they found neither pleasure nor help in books, but derived a sense of defeat and frustration. It wasn't so much that they could not read but that they would not read.<sup>1</sup>

Intelligence quotients, I agree, insofar as they are indicative of ability to learn, establish the fact that most of the students coming into high school should be able to read, and that the fault lies not so much with the method of teaching reading as with the kind of fare on which students constantly feed. Schools are definitely faced with a problem which does not have a simple solution. What many students read must be of such a nature that it will come easily or they will not read.

In order to make even a small advance toward overcoming this apathy toward reading books which are not "easy," teachers must be well read themselves, must love books, and must create in students the desire to read. Establishing the reading interests of his students will help the teacher to get started. It may be rather discouraging to find that the boys wish to read dog and horse stories or sport stories which present no stimulation at all and which keep them on the same reading level. This type of book may be a springboard, however, to reading books on a higher level.

If the teacher makes his own system of rating books and gives points ranging from one to ten for books read, he will find that most students will respond and will seek books which give them a higher rating. There may be a pitfall here for the teacher who places the emphasis merely on the type of book read and overlooks the values which the student should derive from the book. Again, it is important that the report

required is not stereotyped nor too lengthy. The important factors are the actual reading of the book and the derivation of its values.

Stereotyped reports are, to my mind, obsolete, and either a drudgery or a means of deceiving the teacher. The briefer the report, and the more original and personal, the better. Encourage students to express their own reactions to the book and their reasons for thinking that the book has been worth reading. This is often sufficient proof that they have read the book.

Often, because of lack of experience or embarrassment, they are unable to express their thoughts freely. Then the teacher may permit the students to write brief comments and present their papers together with the books after class or at a convenient time. Under this plan the teacher may examine the book and question its reader if he wishes, or explain any problems which the books present.

The teacher has an opportunity to help students to recognize conflicts in the lives of the characters and to arrive at a logical and correct solution, particularly if there is a wrong one in the story. Reading should sensitize and arouse the minds of the young to an awareness of the real meaning of life. They must learn how to judge what is good.

A book possesses factual values which may be summarized in not more than two or three sentences. The ideational values are very important. What is the theme toward which the pattern of symbols points? What is the author's attitude toward the theme? What is the student's reaction? A very good observation which can be made is the inevitability of cause and effect which of necessity characterizes the events of a plot. This leads to a discussion of the responsibility of characters for their acts and the inescapability of the consequences. Books which permit an illumination of such ideas certainly contribute to the mental and spiritual growth of students.

Early in their freshman year and fre-

<sup>1</sup> Vivian Zinkin, "A Staggering Reading Problem." *The Clearing House*, Nov. 1953, pp. 133-37.



quently thereafter, students should be shown the way to tell the difference between a mere action story and one in which the author points up a meaning. They should be able to find the theme of the story and to express it in their own words. Invariably, unless they understand, they will come up with the plot, which, of course, is not the theme. Once they have been taught, they will be able to find undersurface meanings, and if there are none, they will rather shamefacedly tell the instructor, "I think it is only a story, just action, or just entertainment."

When a boy or girl can do that, the teacher has already made a point. This technique must be made clear in class beforehand, and can best be explained and illustrated by means of short stories, because of their brevity. One which offers excellent material for such instruction is *The Trouble*, by J. F. Powers. This story may be found in several anthologies.

The teacher should be on the lookout for stories which possess more than surface meanings. Analysis of mystery and sport stories can make the students aware of what the teacher means by a ten-point book. They will be encouraged to read better books, even if motivated only by the desire to earn more points. This type of motivation is not harmful, because once they have cultivated a taste for good books, they will be led to read on a much higher level.

It has been my experience this year that an average of six or more freshmen or sophomores have reported to me during the noon recess and at the end of the day. At times my own system bore down hard on me, especially when I was overburdened or in a hurry. But never would it pay to send them off because of the discouraging effect such dismissal might have on youthful enthusiasm. They seemed to be reading more joyously and willingly than any of my former pupils. The fact that they were not held down by a required list of books gave them freedom to choose; whereas, the freedom of choice

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#### EDITOR'S NOTE

*In the first semester of the current school year, Sister Mary Aloise experimented by giving her freshman and sophomore English students in St. John High School, Delphos, Ohio, no required list of books from which they must select their outside reading. She can now report that students in these classes seemed to read "more joyously and willingly" than those in any previous classes—and that the average quality of the books they read was surprisingly high. Alas, there is no such thing as absolute freedom, and there was a strategic plan to encourage discrimination.*

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made them feel that they were being treated as mature enough to select worthwhile books.

Eagerly they searched in the file for their index cards to record the books with the number of points assigned, at times perhaps, not too exactly. A record kept on the bulletin board in the form of a graph with different colored crayon for the points of each book brought satisfactory results in two sophomore groups. At a glance the students could see how they compared with the rest of the class. Stars of different colors, gold, silver, blue, and so on, kept three freshman groups busily reading. After a few weeks these records presented a colorful and interesting study. Likewise, the records on the index cards showed not only how many books were read but also what kind and how varied. This information is very helpful for individual guidance.

At the close of school for the Christmas holidays, the cards showed that the talented students had read many more than the required minimum. A boy with not more than average talent had reported on seventeen books, and several girls on sixteen, fifteen, and thirteen. Many had read four, five, and six. There were the usual few who



said that they had no time to read. Some of these were working on farms and in stores, and may have had a legitimate excuse, but none registered a dislike for

books or a refusal to read. The enjoyment I derived from this experience has given me new hope for the future and a strong confidence in the judgment of youth.



## What Pulls Teachers Apart?

There seems to be something about teaching that tends to pull teachers apart, and keeps them from being team-mates in the educational enterprise.

Tradition may play an important part. Teachers have always wanted to be masters in their own right and command the respect of their students. Sometimes this has been done at the expense of the school program and of fellow teachers.

Specialization, too, tends to separate those of different fields, and difference of specialization in one field tends to separate those within a department.

Some teachers take a keen interest in the youth in extracurricular activities; others can little understand this interest and find this conflict a wall of separateness.

Differences in teacher preparation also tend to

group the faculty to a certain degree, because of similarity or difference in the point of view and loyalty of members.

Contrasting views on methods of dealing with students are a strong barrier between members, and the conflicting views on the purposes of education add to the conflict.

Add to these and others the fact that many of the members of the faculty are growing and that some are marking time, and we have developed for ourselves a problem that demands serious attention.

I heard one principal remark one time, when he was rather despondent with all his problems and worries, that he didn't have a faculty, but, instead, 40 one-room schools. He knew, of course, that he was exaggerating, but in what he said there was an element of truth.—RALPH STORTS in *Ohio Schools*.

## Businessmen's Letters Stimulate Wauwatosa Students to Study Spelling

An article in a spring issue of *The English Journal* opens with the usual hackneyed statement that businessmen demand correct spelling and grouse about their inability to hire secretaries capable of correcting their spelling. Pronouncements of this kind have just about achieved the dignity of formula—no successful article on spelling can do without them.

However, I doubt seriously that such worrisome comments, unsubstantial as they are, do the harried English teacher any real good—and I speak from experience. We agree that businessmen demand correct spelling largely because we are agreeable people; but translating that into concrete terms whereby we can scare the living daylight out of our indifferent students is another matter indeed. How many of us really have had the opportunity to hear businessmen complain of poor spelling among their employees? Not many, I would venture to guess.

And all this is by way of preliminary to announcing that I have on hand some twenty-five letters from prominent business and professional leaders in the Milwaukee area, written this spring in response to my [letters of] inquiry as to when and why

businessmen demanded correct spelling. The writers include such people as the mayor of Milwaukee, the city's chief of police, Governor Kohler of Wisconsin, Senator Wiley, two or three bank presidents, an assortment of presidents of public utility concerns, and a variety of sales managers, personnel directors, and so on, of leading Milwaukee industries. Most of the writers are sincere, and several give reasons for the importance of good spelling that might not occur to a teacher inexperienced in commercial matters.

We at Wauwatosa, Wisc., Senior High School have found these letters potent ammunition in the classrooms. When the head of a construction firm states that he considers poor spelling suggestive of more serious carelessness and therefore sufficient reason for not hiring, most of our budding engineers have done more than raise an eyebrow or two.

We are using the letters as part of the promotion of a school-wide spelling contest; and comments from students indicate that the letters have done much to encourage more enthusiasm than ever before engendered by such a contest.—JARVIS E. BUSH in *The English Journal*.



# *Some things are better* **LEARNED IN CAMP:**

Outdoor education at a teachers college

By ORLO L. DERBY

THAT WHICH is best learned inside the classroom should be learned there; and that which can best be learned through direct experience outside the classroom, in contact with native materials and life situations, should there be learned."<sup>1</sup> Direct experience, "in contact with life situations," has long been recognized as a most potent means of learning.

Outdoor education, insofar as teacher education is concerned, is on the threshold of a great development—its resources are as yet untapped. Much has been done by certain colleges and by some states. Considered as a whole, however, the surface has scarcely been touched.

Brockport is one of the eleven state teachers colleges in New York State. Several of its faculty and many of its former students have been at National Camp and had been introduced to, and stimulated by, the concept of outdoor education. They looked forward to the time when some form of camping could be introduced into the regular teacher-education curriculum. Particularly was this true for the general elementary students, since those specializing in health and physical education were already required to have two weeks of camping experience.

However, there seemed to be no practical way to include camping in the curriculum. All the courses in education were required, the great majority of students had to work

in the summer to be able to come back in the fall, and it didn't seem feasible to require students to take camping at this time.

Nevertheless, it was decided to give a summer course of three weeks' duration, called Enrichment of Teaching, at the college camp. This could be substituted for a course given in the regular session that was devoted largely to audio-visual methods. Enrichment of Teaching was to be available to all upper classmen, and would carry three hours of credit.

There followed a period of intensive promotion for the course. The writer personally sent letters to all off-campus student teachers, talked to all students during registration, and wrote articles for the student newspaper. Finally, a group of five students was obtained. This seemed like a small beginning—but it was a beginning!

A program for the course had been prepared which included two main headings:

1. Trips and excursions which may be used in the school program.
2. Skill and knowledge needed to feel at home out of doors.

We hoped that these prospective teachers would make many types of trips which would be of practical use in the elementary-school program. The second heading included such experiences as map reading, the use of the compass, craft work, and other campcraft skills.

The group arrived at camp in the afternoon, and that evening, after the first campfire, discussed the purpose of the whole program with the writer and the camp di-

<sup>1</sup> L. B. Sharp, "Basic Consideration in Outdoor and Camping Education." *Bulletin of the National Association of Secondary School Principals*, May 1947, p. 43.



rector, under whom the actual program would take place.

Periodically thereafter, the group met, decided on their own purposes, and, aided by the camp director, planned how best to achieve them. Emphasis throughout the three weeks was placed on a maximum of experience and a minimum of theory.

One member of the group took as a project the finding of outdoor problems which would aid in teaching seventh-grade arithmetic. Two members identified species of trees around the camp and waxed examples of the leaves of each. One made an admirable sketch map of the camp. (He was careful to note that his map was to be returned to him when we were through with it!)

All the members of the group went on trips to a sawmill, a paper mill, an iron mine, and a Girl Scout camp. Each took turns at cooking, washing pans, and serving at meal time. Each was responsible for some activity at the nightly campfire. Moreover, since we operated in conjunction with a children's camp, all had a chance to see the reactions of children in such a situation.

Each member of the group wrote an evaluation of his camp experiences as well as a daily diary. Typical of the comments are the following:

"Our trip to the Benson Iron Mines,

#### EDITOR'S NOTE

*Outdoor education is an idea that is widely approved and accepted, and almost as widely left "strictly for the birds." Dr. Derby, professor of education at State University Teachers College, Brockport, N. Y., tells how the College managed, by some maneuvering, to get a short summer camping course into a curriculum that made no allowance for such a project.*

Wickes Saw Mill, and the St. Regis Paper Mill showed me how much knowledge can be absorbed in a very short time. . . . A forty-five minute trip, such as those, could cover the same material that would take two or three days of 'spoonfeeding.'"

"Whether we realized it or not, we were constantly learning more and more about children's individual differences. It was interesting watching each one of these children and trying to figure out why they act as they do."

"I feel that every day at camp was worthwhile."

Our first attempt at camping for general elementary students, we feel, was a success. Some administrative difficulties still need to be ironed out, but we are pleased with this beginning. We are convinced that teacher education needs more outdoor education!



### *Not Necessarily Longer Assignments*

When our college freshmen return for Christmas or Easter vacation, we corner the big wheels and invite two or three of the better ones to sit in on a panel with two or three of the high-school seniors who will go to college next year.

The program draws quite an audience of both college preparatory students and teachers who like to hear how well or how badly the high school is functioning in behalf of the relatively small proportion of graduates that go on to college. One theme which we always hear repeated regularly is this: "We never learned how to study in high school."

This seems to be the particular deficiency we have been least able to correct. When our seniors go to college they find it hard to adjust to long assignments and long hours of concentrated study. This holds true, for the most part, in long reading assignments in social studies or literature rather than in math or science.

Teachers want to know whether we should make longer assignments in high school and we learn that not necessarily longer assignments are needed, but "make 'em do the ones you give now!"—MATT LAGERBERG in *The Social Studies*.



# Lockport's B-I-E Day:

Teachers spend Armistice Day visiting and learning about local business and industry

By

KENNETH A. FULLER and H. STEPHENS PLUMMER

I'M CONVINCED that teachers need this contact with other fields of work" wrote one teacher in commenting on the Business-Industry-Education Day in Lockport, N. Y. Other teachers stated that they "learned a great deal and appreciated the opportunity," "thoroughly enjoyed the entire day," and "it made me realize the world-wide connections of local business."

Executives of the firms which cooperated in B-I-E Day rated the event as "highly successful." Several said, "we would like to entertain more teachers next year." "We were impressed with the seriousness and interest of the teachers," was among other comments. One firm, not selected to be visited, asked to be included another year.

In Lockport, the chamber of commerce and the city teachers' association have cooperated in sponsoring a Business-Industry-Education Day since 1950. Both groups have agreed that there are benefits to all concerned in this educational experience.

Formerly, Lockport public-school pupils were dismissed for a day to enable the teachers to visit industry and business. The calendar for the past school year, however, could not provide for this type of non-credited holiday. Therefore, members of the teachers' association overwhelmingly voted to give up a vacation period by using Armistice Day, a regular school holiday, for the program. While attendance was voluntary, 95 per cent of the public- and parochial-school teachers participated.

Purposes of Lockport B-I-E Days are: (1) To provide school staffs with first-hand knowledge of the city's businesses and in-

dustries, (2) To assist teachers and individuals in business and industry to understand one another's problems as well as their contributions to life in Lockport and the Niagara frontier, (3) To enable educators better to understand the types of work into which many of the pupils may go, and (4) To help teachers to bring into their classrooms a more complete knowledge of business and industrial operations as they exist in the community.

## *Planning and Procedures*

A joint committee made up of a teachers' association group and representatives of the chamber of commerce worked together on all the details of planning. In order to make up a list of industries and businesses to be visited, teachers were asked to indicate first, second, third, and fourth choices of places which should be included.

Chamber representatives made contacts with those firms recommended in order to obtain their approval as well as to learn the maximum number of visitors that could be accommodated in the morning and afternoon sessions. With this information, the teacher committee made visiting assignments, and in all cases it was possible to give a teacher his first or second choice.

Two weeks prior to B-I-E Day, each cooperating industry was mailed a list of the names of the visitors and the number to be expected for the morning and afternoon sessions. Such a procedure aided the business personnel in planning their tours. This list was also sent to each school to inform staff members of their visiting assignments.



### EDITOR'S NOTE

*On Business-Industry-Education Day in Lockport, N. Y., each teacher has an opportunity to go on a guided tour of a few local businesses or industries in which he is especially interested. Thus teachers get first-hand knowledge of the operations of local firms, of the kind of work that many of their students later will enter, and can use what they learn in their classroom work when the occasion arises. Mr. Fuller, principal of North Park School in Lockport, and Mr. Plummer, executive secretary of the local chamber of commerce, report that the success of the event has created a demand for another special day on which representatives of business and industry will be offered a guided tour of the schools.*

Beginning at 9:00 A.M. with a general meeting, the program was scheduled to be completed at 3:30 P.M., the end of the usual school day. In some cases, teachers continued their afternoon tours until 5:00 o'clock.

A welcome speech by the president of the city teachers' association opened the day's program. Events of the day were described by the executive secretary of the chamber of commerce. Following this brief meeting, tours of the industries were made. Executives and teachers met together for the noon luncheon, at which the latter group were guests of the chamber of commerce.

At the noon luncheon, the president of the chamber of commerce extended greetings to the teachers, and response was given by the chairman of the teachers' committee. "Problems Educators Face" was the subject discussed by the superintendent of schools. Following the luncheon, teachers made their afternoon visits.

### *Opinionnaire Results*

In order that the joint committee might estimate the values of the visits during B-I-E Day and to solicit suggestions which would

aid future planning, the teachers' committee requested staff members to complete an opinionnaire. The chamber of commerce asked cooperating industries for their appraisal of the project. Comments and recommendations received rated the day's program as highly successful and provided information which will be helpful in organizing other B-I-E Days.

Executives regarded the joint endeavor as very successful and agreed that it should be repeated. With only one exception, the public- and parochial-school teachers stated that the visits not only were interesting, but also were instructive.

Teachers' comments ran as follows: "Feel the program was well planned," "very well conducted," "very worthwhile to learn how some of the products we use are made as well as the kinds of jobs available." One teacher remarked that the chance to visit with former students was a good outcome.

Attitudes of the visiting teachers were rated by industry as serious and interested, while the attitudes of industrial management were considered by the teachers to have been cordial and interested.

Eighty-six per cent of the teachers were impressed by the methods and efficiency of the plants visited. Over seven per cent gave no opinion, while less than seven per cent were not impressed on this specific point.

In response to the question, "Do you feel you have a better understanding of industry, its problems, and its contributions to community welfare?" ninety-two per cent answered in the affirmative; the rest gave no reply. This result supported the executives' opinion that they had been successful in "getting over" to the teachers, in some measure, the story of business, its contributions to the community welfare, and the importance of profits.

Suggestions made by teachers for the improvement of tours included: set a smaller limit on the number in a group; have talks by industrial representatives which are simple and not too technical; conduct a



brief explanation before the tour begins, with a discussion following the tour; see the finished product as well as the production process. Although numerous minor points for improvement were listed, most teachers believed that a tour should be limited to an hour and a half or two hours in length.

Officers of the city teachers' association were interested in the members' opinions on the frequency of the B-I-E Days. Twenty-five per cent thought the best plan was to have them yearly; sixty per cent, once every two years; thirteen per cent failed to answer this item; the remaining two per cent gave other frequencies.

Industrial executives were asked by the

chamber of commerce committee whether they were interested in an arrangement whereby they would visit the schools for a day. In three-fourths of the cases, an affirmative answer was given, and all of these business men agreed to participate in such an Education-Industry-Business Day.

As a result of these opinions by industry and education, both the chamber of commerce and the teachers are considering an E-I-B Day for the school year on which industry and business representatives will visit the schools. As in the past, a joint committee will sponsor the day and will work together in the planning and functioning of the program.



## Pedagogs Agog

By FRANCES OSWALD

Our school municipality  
Addicted to frugality  
Enjoys a prodigality  
Of talk.

Indulging in tautology  
Ignoring all philology  
They speak on methodology  
And more.

With words extraordinary  
Unknown to secretary  
Or found in dictionary  
They talk.

In phrases awkward, grotesque  
In accents Gertrude-Steinesque  
They make our teaching burlesque  
And farce.

Despite our erudition  
And years of inhibition  
We're ready for sedition  
We balk.

We're weary of verbosity  
We're sated with pomposity  
We call their speech "monstrosity"  
Not talk.

We pray that saturation  
With words like *maturation*  
Will bring amelioration  
We plead!

"Have done with ambiguity!  
Speak out with more acuity!  
Let's have some continuity  
Of thought!

"Defer to our stupidity!  
Please speak with some lucidity!  
We'll listen with avidity  
And learn."

We teachers of the nation  
In humble supplication  
Beg pedants that they ration  
Pedagogue.



# SEMANTICS *and the* ENGLISH TEACHER

By  
GEORGE REINFELD

THE MODERN semantic movement has been in existence since the publication of Ogden and Richards' work, *The Meaning of Meaning*, in 1922. Hayakawa's *Language in Thought and Action*, coming nearly two decades later, served to make practical the ideas and concepts expressed in the first books which heralded the new method of dealing with language.

The first materials were of course philosophical in content, and there was a direct need for someone to offer a series of applications which could be applied on the college or even the high-school level. Let us examine these new ideas in practice.

Hayakawa begins by considering the effect of the words he hears on the attitude of the individual. He states that there are whole nations in the world today who are fed on a diet of carefully selected words. The end result of this treatment is to render their actions "mad" to the rest of the world. Such a nation might be the Soviet Union

with its policy of the cold (and of late the hot) war.

We ask, "But don't they want peace? Don't they realize that another war will destroy both their land, our land, and the entire world?"

To us the answers are obvious but to a people reared in an atmosphere of a certain set of words, or propaganda, the questions have a different *meaning* or more than likely they have no *meaning* at all. Thus *meaning* becomes the key to mutual understanding, not only between foreigners and ourselves, but between a man and his wife, two friends talking on the telephone, as well as between the traffic policeman and the man who has just passed a red light.

The patrolman asks, "Where are you going, to a fire?"

Here are two nearly identical answers to the question. The first will surely earn the motorist a ticket and a fine. The second may well turn away wrath—and the ticket:

"No, *flatfoot*, I'm on my way home."

"No, *officer*, I'm on my way home."

Both words, "*flatfoot*" and "*officer*," have nearly the same meaning. Just there is the rub of language usage. It is the shade or tone of a word that indicates to the mind of the listener just what meaning is to be taken in a particular statement.

Consider the change in meaning in two identical sentences used in different situations.

As his wife's mother entered the house at the beginning of a lengthy visit, he said, "Mother, darling, I'm so glad to see you."

As his mother entered the house after

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## EDITOR'S NOTE

*Semantics began to become a popular idea in educational circles following the appearance more than a decade ago of Hayakawa's Language in Thought and Action. But according to Mr. Reinfeld, semantics hasn't penetrated very deeply into our high-school English classrooms. The author, who teaches English in Westwood, N. J., High School, tells why he thinks this methodology would help English teachers to cope with some of their current problems.*

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being away two hours later than usual, the little boy cried, "Mother, darling, I'm so glad to see you."

In each sentence the words are identical but the meanings are worlds apart.

The foregoing situation illustrates the two basic concepts of the meaning approach to language:

1. A word has many meanings.
2. The meaning of a word depends on the words around it in the sentence.

The formal English teaching of today does not take into account what has been discovered during the past thirty years about language and how it works. Statistics reveal that the successful business executive possesses a vast vocabulary. Ergo, in order to become president of General Motors, the student needs only to acquire a vast vocabulary. (Were this true, many a poor high-school or college teacher might easily become wealthy.) Besides, the college-entrance examination includes a large section on vocabulary.

With these authorizations, the English teacher proceeds to cram one thousand words down the throat of the poor student (at the rate of perhaps twenty a day), in most cases words which he will rarely use and which have no relation to his experiences.<sup>1</sup>

Teachers all over the country have been complaining for years that "these students can't read." What they mean in many cases

<sup>1</sup> This illustration is credited to Professor Lawrence H. Conrad, of Montclair State Teachers College.

is that the student does not comprehend what he is reading. He would do better to examine closely the words which are already in his vocabulary so that he may discover the meanings and ramifications of the words he already "knows."

"The writer of a dictionary is a historian, not a law giver," says Hayakawa.

The dictionary writer does not make "authoritative statements about true meanings." Too often the English teacher acts as though the dictionary were the gospel and he the anointed one sent to spread the "true meaning" of the word.

Education, unfortunately, has always been subject to a cultural lag which has left it years behind the times on many occasions. The student knows whether what he is being given is valuable for himself or whether it is just so much gibberish being served up according to a pattern that was outmoded when his father went to school. He will listen only to what is for him. The teacher must take into account that in the modern world, the fields of science and politics are discarding the traditions and forging ahead to new vistas at an alarming pace.

The English classroom is one of the places where the student must learn to think in terms of what is happening. What does it mean? How am I to react to it? By providing a place in the curriculum for these new techniques of language training, the English teacher will assist in better relating the student to the world around him.



### *A Little Unfair*

The idea of keeping youth in school for longer and longer periods arose not entirely out of consideration for the child. That was part of it—not all of it. The main reason was the realization on the part of our citizens and their representatives that the economic world did not need the labor of the very young, and that for their sake and ours, they had better stay in school where they would

have some sort of supervision. . . . However, it does seem a little unfair for the law to compel our schools to retain these students who find learning difficult and resent being in school, and then to criticize us for not making them into good spellers or good readers. That was never done in any school system and probably never will.—J. W. EDWARDS in *Oregon Education Journal*.



# The Ladies or the Ethics

By JAIRUS J. DEISENROTH

PRINCIPAL SMYTHE was faced with one of those decisions in life that come only at dramatic and fateful moments. It was May Day, and as usual the schools of the city were having their hilarious and busy annual Health Day. Races, contests, May poles, pop corn, ice cream, lost children, anxious mothers, and the usual hustling and bustling of teachers and officials were in evidence. But none of these bothered Smythe.

It was down on the softball field that he met his problem. There the girls of his South Junior High were battling their high-hat cousins from North Junior High. The South girls had never won a game on May Day, and Smythe had no bright vision of a miracle as he dutifully trudged over to the player's bench. He should have been satisfied that his boys had won all the relays. But he still had that feeling about the ball game.

The game was well on its way. Umpiring behind the plate was Miss Hendricks, health ed. teacher. Base umpire was John

Welcome, amateur ball player and teacher. Two scorekeepers were apparently very busy as the South girls batted. In fact the score was rather lopsided in favor of South. Looked like 15 to 3. Smythe grinned as he sat on the bench with his girls.

Betty sat next to him. Out of breath, she had just scored a run. Before he could speak to her she was up again and batting. A swing of the bat, a flash of the ball, and more runs came in. Excellent, was Principal Smythe's verdict—and the scorekeepers kept their books while the score mounted.

Finally, when Smythe had settled down to enjoy the slaughter, he noticed that several of his girls had not moved from the bench during the entire inning.

"Say, Mary," he called. Mary Schrader looked up. "Don't you get to bat this inning?" he asked.

"Why, no, Mr. Smythe," replied Mary. "We girls decided that those four out there should do all the batting, since they are our best batters. We just field."

Smythe arose with dignity, looked over the carnage, saw that the game was apparently in good hands with two umpires and scorekeepers, and then adjusting his tie carefully strolled over to locate, if possible, the standing broad jump, which, he understood, also had a full complement of officials.

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EDITOR'S NOTE: Mr. Deisenroth is a member of the Research Department of the Cincinnati, Ohio, Public Schools. He says that there is nothing fictitious about this incident except the names of persons and schools.

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## Vocational Information Corner

By JACK MACHALE

THE STUDENTS of Montgomery Blair High School in Silver Spring, Md., consider themselves fortunate to have one of the most modern and up-to-date school libraries

in the United States. Although the physical arrangement is one of exceptional dimension and beauty, it is the "extras" that are its notable qualities.



These so-called extras are maintained by interested groups of students and teachers who are not on the library staff, but realize its importance as a focal point of all research, both educational and social.

One of the extras is a vocational information corner. A helpful and interesting educational function is sponsored by the Diversified Occupations Department of Montgomery Blair. This department supervises and teaches an on-the-job-training program for senior students. As part of the required program, students must be familiar with job information about future vocations. From the information obtained, students make up their individual occupational monographs for future long-range employment.

Consequently a modern vocational information section is required. All available books on this subject are arranged in one corner of the library. In addition, all types

of pamphlets, pictures, graphs and any other information of a vocational nature from various local commercial firms are placed in a rack in the same area. All information pertaining to the various military services is included as an integral part of this vocational corner.

This service is maintained by the Diversified Occupations Department with the assistance of a special student assigned by the librarian as a technical adviser.

How do we know the students are interested? Well, the corner is continually "messed up," showing that it is really used.

Other organizations have become interested in the furtherance of this vocational corner. The school store is contributing financially to the establishment of a more extensive set of books and informational materials to help with future student employment.

Montgomery Blair's two thousand senior high students feel that when they leave high school they will have had every available educational facility to aid them in their selection of a vocation suitable to their interests and talents.

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EDITOR'S NOTE: Mr. MacHale is a coordinator in the Diversified Occupations Department of Montgomery Blair High School, Silver Spring, Md.

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## Stormy Weather: Close School?

By G. I. SHOLY

UP IN MINNESOTA, where occasionally the storms of snow come with fury, it is important to have a pre-arranged plan to notify people of the closing of school. Radio and television stations are the best and quickest way to do this.

Everybody just stays in bed to listen to the early morning news, and when school is closed they all go happily back to sleep. But pity the poor superintendent of

schools! He stays up most of the night watching the weather and then, when it looks pretty good around 3 A.M. he crawls happily into bed believing that the morrow will bring sunshine and free-wheeling school buses.

But what about that early-morning wind that suddenly arises? After about three hours of sleep said superintendent is rudely awakened by a simultaneous ringing of the phone and a pounding on the door. Both disturbances are handled simultaneously by this ambidextrous gentleman, and at the same time he peers out a frosty window to

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EDITOR'S NOTE: Mr. Sholy is superintendent of schools in Hancock, Minn.

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see that the wind is blowing the snow around in heavy gusts. Immediate action is indicated, so this fine fellow makes his long distance call to the radio and television stations pronto!

But is he through? Not this boy. For the next two hours he runs from bed to phone, answering the same question asked by people who have no radio or who have only a television set with "snow" on it so they can't hear the announcer.

After many years of this sort of thing, our gray-haired gentleman has evolved a sure-fire plan for calling off school for stormy weather. It is hereby submitted for general approval. (The editorial "We" of explanation is used not only because it is good form but also because this stoop-shouldered former gay blade is really two people.) We quote:

"This closing of school for storms is a difficult undertaking but, after several years of working on the best method, we have developed the following procedure on a stormy morning, to wit:

"We put our ear to the ground. This is to check with the local blow-offs who might be spouting off. We check with the janitor to see how the problem would have been handled 25 years ago. We call up Olaus Ludkins, who farms east of town, to see what he would do. We submit the three separate and unbiased opinions to the six school-board members.

"They vote and, in case of a tie, we go up to the local dispensary and take a poll of the empty bottles. If there is an even number, we measure the snow drifts on each of the 25 streets in town. If the total depth of the drifts, divided by 25, equals three feet, school is closed."



## You'll Be Teaching More Pupils Per Class

In the days before World War I the aim of high schools generally was to hold class size to about 20 pupils. If an occasional class, other than music and physical education, exceeded 25, it was a subject for real concern by both teachers and principal. Nearly everybody said then that classes were too large.

In our day a principal feels fortunate if no class is over 35. An investigation into size of class reported by the Office of Education in 1949 revealed that classes in large high schools had an average registration of 29.5 pupils and that 11.2 per cent of all classes exceeded 40 pupils. Then, too, classes were said to be overlarge.

What of the future? Enrolments in grades 9 to 12, which for the past 10 years have remained fairly stationary at about 5.5 million, are due to rise to 6 million by 1956 and to 7 million by 1959. That is an increase of 1.5 million in 6 years. Will classes be too large in 1959? And if so, how large? Forty, perhaps? Or will improved recruiting procedures and an abiding faith on the part of the people who pay the cost provide enough teachers to hold class size to a modest 30 in 1959? The problem is complicated.

The solutions will probably be equally complicated. Double sessions? Correspondence study and

self-teaching materials? Work experience on a greatly expanded scale? And if these and other measures are adopted to vitalize education of youth, will they tend to ease the teaching load or will they aggravate it by placing new and bewildering problems on the already overburdened teacher?

One solution worth more consideration than it has received is to take the teacher out of his traditional role as principal dispenser of information in the classroom. If we can develop and capitalize on meaningful *modern* teaching aids, such as still and motion pictures, daylight projection of opaque objects, disc and tape recordings, radio, television, self-correcting practice materials coupled with diagnostic tests, and the like, we should be able to relieve the teacher of being a classroom oracle and at the same time improve the quality of instruction.

A teacher having such aids at hand and trained in their use can save himself and his pupils much of the wear and tear of ponderous instruction; he can save more of his energy for the vital individual and small-group assistance now too often crowded out in large classes. And classes will probably be larger in 1959.—CARL A. JESSEN in *School Life*.





## Events & Opinion



Edited by THE STAFF

**BURN WHICH BOOKS?** The authorities in Victoria, B.C., recently were at a pitch of eagerness to burn all "subversive" books in the public library, says a United Press wire—but they hadn't any idea which books to pick. A library board member said she knew that subversive books were on the shelves but couldn't name any. The mayor had offered his basement furnace for the burnings and announced, "Our position is very clear and simple. There will be no pussyfooting." But he couldn't name any books either. All of this must have been extremely frustrating, what with local newspapers, churchmen, educators, and politicians taking "a very unfair attitude" toward the project by opposing it.

**SCHOLARSHIP "REVOLUTION":** An "almost revolutionary" joint agreement on problems of scholarship awards has been developed by 13 West Coast colleges and universities, according to an announcement of a joint committee of the institutions.

The problem which plagues all scholarship committees is that of giving funds to students who merit them but do not need them. The new program is expected to eliminate "bidding" for students through scholarship awards, by offering grants only to those who need them, but honoring those who merit academic recognition.

The plan, which goes into effect this spring for the 1954-55 school year, calls for use of uniform applications for financial assistance from students entering any of the 13 institutions. Two types of awards will be given.

Entering students who deserve academic recognition but don't need money will be awarded only certain honors and "maximum publicity." Students who receive the second type of award, scholarship grants, will be selected on the basis of all-around scholastic records, and the amount awarded them will be based on the extent of their financial need. The scholarship grants will be confidential, although students who receive them can qualify for the honors-and-publicity treatment concerning their academic distinctions. The 13 charter members of the group hope that other colleges and universities will join them in the program.

**RELIGION FOR PUPILS:** A "policy and a plan of action" for giving public-school pupils religious instruction on school time have been adopted by the Board of Education of the Methodist Church, according to an announcement of the National Council of the Churches of Christ.

Recommendations on policy were: That Methodists express their conviction to local citizens and school boards that no education is sound unless it "includes as an integral part" recognition of the reality of God as "the source of truth, righteousness, and love," and that the concept of God should be taught as "basic in American culture, life, and history." That there should be an "ultimate re-testing in the courts of the issues inherent in the place and function of religion in public schools." That the Methodist Church should have a full share in providing religious education for "the unchurched children now in the public schools" through facilities, teachers, and curriculum provided by the church. And that Methodists work with other like-minded groups to the foregoing purposes.

Recommendations on a plan of action were: That a conference of Methodist Church representatives and public-school educators be called to consider the problem of education for public-school pupils. That state conferences of a similar nature be called to develop programs "in the light of specific state laws." That "all possible legal ways of increasing religious orientation of public-school teaching" be considered, such as: A daily acknowledgment of the reality of God; supplying public-school teachers who are Methodists with methods and suggestions for legally "creating within their classrooms . . . a favorable climate for religious responses;" cooperation in establishing near public-school buildings of a "nation-wide system of interdenominational schools of religion" in which religion will be taught to public-school pupils during assigned periods within the school day.

**VOTES FOR 18-YEAR-OLDS:** When President Eisenhower recommended in his State of the Union message that the voting age be lowered to 18, his suggestion was heartily endorsed, says an Associated Press dispatch, by former Governor Arnall of Georgia. The voting age was lowered to 18 in that State in 1943.

According to Georgia's 10-year findings, voters between 18 and 21 "behave much like their elders." "Hot" elections bring more of them out, and they vote along the general lines of family and local interest. Lowering of the voting age brought out a wave of young voters at first—but after that young people appeared at the polls in about the same ratio as their elders.

Former Governor Arnall, however, who sponsored the lowering of the voting age that came under his



regime, said, "Actually, young people take a more active interest in politics because they study it in school and want to become active at once."

**FAMILY FINANCE ED.:** For the fifth consecutive year summer-workshop graduate training courses on teaching of money management and financial security are being made possible by the Committee on Family Financial Security Education.

Scholarships for the summer of 1954 will be available to more than 330 high-school teachers and other educators at 8 leading universities throughout the country. These scholarships are awarded by the sponsoring universities and are made possible by grants to them from the Institute of Life Insurance. A few of the scholarships are available to "teams" from individual school systems—"one or two classroom teachers, a supervisor, and perhaps a principal or superintendent."

Those who have attended the previous workshops were in such subject areas as home economics, social studies, business education, mathematics, family life education, and guidance. Participants included junior-high-school, high-school, and junior-college teachers, faculty members of teacher-training institutions, and administrators.

The 8 sponsoring universities are: Univ. of Conn., Univ. of Denver, Miami Univ. (Ohio), Univ. of Ore., Univ. of Pa., So. Methodist Univ., Univ. of Va., and Univ. of Wis. For information on schedules and scholarships, write to R. Wilfred Kelsey, Committee on Family Financial Security Education, 488 Madison Ave., New York 22, N.Y.

**PRE-DELINQUENCY:** A pre-delinquency screening device, "The KD Proneness Scale and Checklist," developed by Dr. William C. Kwaraceus of Boston University, has been issued by World Book Co., Yonkers, N.Y., for use with pupils in grades 6 through 12. This instrument's delinquency-proneness indicators "serve as aids in identifying those boys and girls who are vulnerable, susceptible, or exposed to the development of delinquent patterns of behavior. They also provide clues to the causes of delinquent or pre-delinquent behavior." From what we read in the newspapers, it seems to us that 1954 is a particularly timely date for the appearance of such a device.

**FROM LIBERAL ARTS TO JOBS:** High-school students who plan to take liberal-arts degrees in college have special problems of their own in thinking about suitable future jobs. *Mademoiselle* recently conducted a workshop on this matter in behalf of girls.

Placement directors of more than 100 colleges worked with panels of employers from five "star-crossed, least-understood fields: writing, retailing,

social work, commercial art and jobs with travel in them. Aim: fresh ways to match needs and abilities of liberal-arts graduates with employers' wants." *Jobs on Your Mind*, a report on the results of the workshop, may be obtained for 50 cents from *Mademoiselle*, 575 Madison Ave., New York 22, N.Y.

**KINSEY ON SEX ED.:** The sex education of children should begin before they are 3 years old, said Dr. Alfred C. Kinsey in a recent speech in New York City reported by the *New York Post*. Dr. Kinsey disclosed that his third book is tentatively titled "Sex Education." It includes studies of several hundred children 5 years old and less which "are twice as hard to make as studies of adults."

He said that after 15 years of gathering, classifying, and collating information on sex behavior, he had little hope for evolving a basic plan for the sex education of children. He tells parents who ask him when they should begin the sex education of their children that if a child is 3 years old they have already lost time and valuable opportunities: "Children of 2 and 3 are already strongly affected by the cultural patterns immediately surrounding them. They are aware of sexual differences, whether their parents want them to acquire knowledge of the subject or not."

**SCHOLARSHIP LOANS:** A scholarship-loan fund has been established by the Cahokia Commonfields Classroom Teachers Association, Cahokia, Ill., to assist graduating seniors of the local high school who plan to become teachers, says *Illinois Education*. When the fund was only a few months old teachers had contributed \$1,047 to it and had selected their first beneficiary. Selected seniors who are interested in becoming teachers are given up to \$250 a year in aid to attend college. By remaining in the teaching profession for two years after college graduation they are required to repay only one-half the amount they borrowed. To be eligible for a scholarship loan, students must be in the upper 50% of their class.

## At the End of the Chapter

An analysis of the activities found at the ends of the chapters [of textbooks] indicates that a great number of authors toss them in as excess baggage. This seems to be true even with some of the more popular textbooks. However, in a well-planned textbook the end-of-chapter activities serve a very useful function and should be used with maximal effectiveness.—GEORGE GREISEN MALLINSON in *School Science and Mathematics*.



# *Book Reviews*

ROBERT G. FISK and EARL R. GABLER, *Review Editors*

*Housing and Home Management*, by DORA S. LEWIS, JEAN O. BURNS, and ESTHER F. SEGNER. New York: The Macmillan Co., 1953. 312 pages, \$3.20.

This book brings housing and home management into a clearer relationship, giving ideas for selecting, renovating, and maintaining the home for happy family living. Needs for each of the five stages of the family cycle are discussed. Two families—the Joneses and the Lees—meet their housing problems. The Joneses decide between renting an apartment or a house. The Lees build a new home.

The reader is faced by the question, "Where will you live?" Problems of buying, renting, community planning, house styles, layouts of rooms, financing, and furnishing, arrangement, and care for each room are considered. Stress is placed on considering housekeeping management when selecting a home and its furnishings. Many ideas for saving time and energy in housekeeping are included. No right-wrong standards in family living are presented by the authors, but practical suggestions are given so each family may achieve its own standards in the light of family goals.

*Housing and Home Management* is written on a very practical level. It is also attractive and appealing, with its numerous pictures showing how to do such things as building a terrace, making flower arrangements, renovating furniture, fixing a drawer that sticks. Excellent activities are suggested at the end of each chapter.

The Glossary includes suggested cleaning techniques, a lease, a deed, and a mortgage.

GWENDOLYN WAGNER  
Chico State College  
Chico, Cal.

*Earth Science—The World We Live In*, by SAMUEL N. NAMOWITZ and DONALD B. STONE. New York: D. Van Nostrand Company, 1953. 438 pages, \$3.96.

This attractive book contains a bountiful collection of up-to-date factual information. A minimum of technical terms are used and it is written so that the average high-school student should be able to understand it. In addition there are an unusually large number of clear illustrations and photographs.

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*Teaching Successfully the Industrial Arts and Vocational Subjects*, by G. HAROLD SILVIUS and ESTELL H. CURRY. Bloomington, Ill.: McKnight & McKnight Publishing Co., 1953. 339 pages, \$4.50.

This is undoubtedly the finest book of its type that I have ever read. I am having copies made available to all the men in my department. It should be an invaluable aid for the beginning teacher and a wonderful reference book (I was tempted to say bible) for teachers who have taught five or twenty-five years.

I would rate the organization of the contents as exceptional; the index satisfactory. The information in the appendix is definitely useful. Subject-matter organization is very good.

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the high degree of organization recommended by this book were achieved. On the other hand, I am sure that lack of organization is one of the greatest causes of poor teaching.

The quality of the paper and the bookbinding appear to be quite satisfactory. If the size of the type used were increased, I am sure beginning teachers, who may read for considerable periods of time, would appreciate it—even if it meant increased cost.

While I do not know the authors personally, I have heard of them many times. After reading this book, I feel that my respect for them is more than justified. Entirely too many teacher textbooks are being written by theorists.

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Boulder, Colo.: Language Learning Aids,  
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*A Song Approach to Music Reading*, by CHARLES LEONHARD. New York: Silver Burdett Co., 1953. 149 pages, paper bound, \$2.

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*Initiating and Administering Guidance Services*, by S. A. HAMRIN. Bloomington, Ill.: McKnight and McKnight Publishing Co., 1953. 220 pages, \$3.

This book is written particularly for principals and superintendents. Dr. Hamrin points out in the foreword that no good program of guidance services can thrive or even exist long without the sympathetic understanding and encouragement of school administrators. He hopes that this volume will aid in promoting such understanding and assistance. It is this reviewer's opinion that this book will accomplish its purpose if read and used by those for whom it is intended.

A chapter is devoted to each of the three primary tasks of the administrator who tries to initiate and carry on a desirable guidance program. These are: (1) Proper initiation of the guidance program, (2) adequate in-service education of faculty and staff, (3) securing approval by the public of the program of guidance services.

The remainder of the book is devoted to suggesting desirable practices in various kinds and sizes of schools in each of the six broad aspects of a complete guidance program. These include: (1) Pre-admission and orientation services, (2) individual study services, (3) counseling for all students, (4) the supplying of educational and occupational information, (5) the promotion of growth through group living, and (6) placement and follow-up services.

The administrator who is about to initiate a guidance program should certainly read this book. Its helpfulness, however, is not limited to those who are just starting a program and its usefulness is not restricted to administrators; counselors and homeroom teachers particularly will also find it useful.

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## BOOKS RECEIVED

- Chemistry for Our Times* (and ed.), by ELBERT C. WEAVER and LAURENCE S. FOSTER. New York: McGraw-Hill Book Co., 1954. 666 pages, \$4.12.
- Democratic Citizenship in Today's World*, by A. ELWOOD ADAMS and EDWARD EVERETT WALKER. New York: Charles Scribner's Sons, 1953. 373 pages, \$2.20.
- The High School Teacher and His Job—A Symposium*, edited by FRANKLIN R. ZERAN. New York: Chartwell House, Inc., 1953. 282 pages, \$4.50.
- How to Become a Better Reader*, by PAUL WITTY. Chicago: Science Research Associates, 1953. 304 + 12 pages, \$4.16.
- Instructional Leadership*, by GORDON N. MACKENZIE and STEPHEN M. COREY in Association With Others. (Horace Mann-Lincoln Institute of School Experimentation) New York: Bureau of Publications, Teachers College, Columbia University, 1954. 209 pages, \$3.25.
- Life Adjustment Education in Action—A Symposium*, edited by FRANKLIN R. ZERAN. New York: Chartwell House, Inc., 1953. 541 pages, \$6.50.
- Mathematics for Everyday Living*, by ADELE LEONHARDY and VIVIAN B. ELY. New York: D. Van Nostrand Co., Inc., 1954. 470 pages, \$2.96.
- Nineteen Fifty-Three Achievement Testing Program*

*in Independent Schools and Supplementary Studies* (Bu'l. No. 61). New York: Educational Records Bureau, 1953. 86 pages, \$2.

*Our Changing Social Order* (4th ed.), by RUTH WOOD GAVIAN, A. A. GRAY, and ERNEST R. GROVES. Boston: D. C. Heath and Co., 1953. 616 pages, \$3.60.

## PAMPHLETS RECEIVED

*American Trade Schools Directory—1953*, compiled by ULRICH H. E. CRONER. Queens Village, N.Y.: Croner Publications, 1953. 105 pages, \$3.75.

*The Assault on the UN*, by ALEXANDER UHL. Washington, D.C.: Public Affairs Institute, 1953. 36 pages, 25 cents.

"B'nai B'rith Vocational Brief Series" (Washington, D.C.: B'nai B'rith Vocational Service Bureau, 1953. 8 pages, 20 cents each):

*Careers in Hospital Administration*, by ROBERT SHOSTECK.

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*Careers Through Apprenticeships*.

*Censorship and Controversy*—Report of the Committee on Censorship of Teaching Materials for Classroom and Library. Chicago: National Council of Teachers of English, 1953. 56 pages, 75 cents.

*College Credit by Examination*—An Evaluation of the University of Buffalo Program, by EDWARD S. JONES and GLORIA K. ORTNER. Buffalo, N.Y.: University of Buffalo, 1954. 201 pages, 50 cents.

*Developmental Reading*—Proceedings of 35th Annual Education Conference sponsored by Reading Clinic, School of Education, Univ. of Delaware. Newark, Del.: Order from University Bookstore, Univ. of Delaware, 1953. 68 pages, \$1.50.

*Directory of Professional Opportunities*, by ROBERT SHOSTECK. Washington, D.C.: B'nai B'rith Vocational Service Bureau, 1954. 81 pages, 75 cents.

*Public Affairs Pamphlets* (New York: Public Affairs Committee, Inc. 28 pages, 25 cents each):

*Stepmothers Can Be Nice!* (Pamphlet No. 198), by HELEN STEERS BURGESS, 1953.

*The Stranger at Our Gate*—America's Immigration Policy, by HUBERT H. HUMPHREY, JR. 1954.

*Self-Perception in the University*—A Study of Successful and Unsuccessful Graduate Students, by EDGAR Z. FRIEDENBERG and JULIUS A. ROTH (Supplementary Education Monograph No. 80). Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1954. 102 pages, \$1.75.

*Shaping a People's Destiny*—The Story of Eritrea and the United Nations (UN Department of Public Information). New York: Columbia University Press. 32 pages, 25 cents.

*Suggested School Health Policies*—A Charter for School Health (2nd ed.), rev. by National Committee on School Health Policies of the National Conference for Cooperation in Health Education. New York, N.Y.: Health Education Council (10 Downing St.). 46 pages, 35 cents.

*Trends in Literature on Teaching the Language Arts*, by EDNA FURNESS. Laramie, Wyo.: Order from the Author, College of Educ., University of Wyoming. 34 pages, 50 cents.

*What Do We See in '53 for Guidance and Health*, sponsored by Dept. of Educ., University Extension Div., and Office of Summer Session of Univ. of Wisc., and Others. Madison, Wisc.: Kramer Business Service, 1953. 67 pages, \$1.

*You Can Talk Better*, by C. VAN RIPER (Junior Life Adj. Booklet). Chicago: Science Research Associates, 1953. 40 pages, 40 cents.

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# The March Clearing House Is Here

*The following excerpts are clues to good professional reading  
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There are far too many people working hard to improve general education for anyone to claim that it is yet a panacea for the curricular problems which currently beset us. However, it does seem to have sufficient merit, both present and potential, to deserve our sympathetic and creative efforts.—*Carlos de Zafra, Jr.*, p. 393.

We read about or experiment with practical guidance and questions come to our minds. . . . Let's jump at once to these questions and consider at least one answer for each.—*Reed Fulton*, p. 394.

. . . Curriculum improvement is not effected solely by the publication of a program or teachers' guide. Rather, the effort which goes into the writing of such a program is of little value unless the program is introduced and interpreted to teachers in a manner which incites most of them to try it in their classrooms.—*Jerry E. Reed*, p. 398.

By far the largest area of [student] council authority is the one in which students and faculty work together on school and community projects. This obviously is the heart of the whole idea of student participation in school management.—*William S. Sterner*, p. 403.

The dichotomy between the world of reality and the world of the comics and the pulp magazines is the basic cause of a large part of the behavior problems in high school and hence also of delinquency.—*Charles A. Tonsor*, p. 405.

. . . If you should ask the next ten people you meet whether they know how to use the telephone, they would probably consider the question a ridiculous one. . . . Certainly, they know how to use it! Everyone knows how to use the telephone! But do they? . . . Fort Scott Senior High School and Junior College is giving its students an opportunity to learn more about the telephone and how to use it effectively.—*Ophelia K. Henderson*, p. 409.

Dollar bills are always fascinating. Nearly everyone is eager to earn them and more eager to spend them. . . . Let's take a dollar bill and go over it together.—*Frank Meyer*, p. 412.

The alarm went off in the darkness of 4:00 A.M. and the annual Senior Skip Day began. Six cars and thirty-two people were to leave from the schoolhouse an hour later. . . . I gulped my coffee, hoped that my wife would go back to sleep, and was on the way.—*Gerald L. Poor*, p. 414.

If the teacher makes his own system of rating books and gives points ranging from one to ten for books read, he will find that most students will respond and will seek books which give them a higher rating.—*Sister Mary Aloise, S.N.D.*, p. 420.

Too often the English teacher acts as though the dictionary were the gospel and he the appointed one sent to spread the "true meannig" of the word.—*George Reinfeld*, p. 429.

### Articles featured in the March Clearing House:

General Education: Where It Stands Today . . . . .	<i>Carlos de Zafra, Jr.</i>	387
Questions in Our Minds About Guidance . . . . .	<i>Reed Fulton</i>	394
Introducing Curriculum Improvement in Denver . . . . .	<i>Jerry E. Reed</i>	398
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## *Wisconsin Social Hygiene Briefs*

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*First review was in the April 2, 1951 issue.*

*This review was in the January 18, 1952 issue:*

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# ➤ Audio-Visual News ➤

IRWIN ECKHAUSER, Editor

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**SCIENCE:** *Man's Use of Power*, 35 mm, 50 frames, color, \$6.50, issued by Popular Science Publishing

—♦—  
**EDITOR'S NOTE:** Mr. Eckhauser is a member of the faculty of Washington Junior High School, Mt. Vernon, N. Y. He invites readers to send reports of 50 to 75 words on their experiences in classroom use of a particular film or recording.

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